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THE THEORY OF EQUATIONS.

VOLUME II.

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THE
THEORY OF EQUATIONS:

WITH AN
INTRODUCTION TO THE THEORY OF BINARY
ALGEBRAIC FORMS.

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CHAPTER XIII.

DETERMINANTS.

127. Elementary Notions and Definitions.—This chapter will be occupied with a discussion of an important class of functions which constantly present themselves in analysis. These functions possess remarkable properties, by a knowledge of which much simplification can be introduced into many operations in both pure and applied mathematics.

The function $a_1b_2 + a_2b_1$, of the four quantities

$$\begin{array}{cc} a_1, & b_1, \\ a_2, & b_2, \end{array}$$

is obtained by assigning to a and b , written in alphabetical order, the suffixes 1, 2, and 2, 1, corresponding to the two permutations of the numbers 1, 2, and adding the two products so formed.

Similarly, the function

$$a_1b_2c_3 + a_1b_3c_2 + a_2b_3c_1 + a_2b_1c_3 + a_3b_1c_2 + a_3b_2c_1, \quad (1)$$

of the nine quantities

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a_1, & b_1, & c_1, \\ a_2, & b_2, & c_2, \\ a_3, & b_3, & c_3, \end{array}$$

is obtained by adding all the products abc which can be formed by assigning to the letters (retained in their alphabetical order) suffixes corresponding to all the permutations of the numbers 1, 2, 3. The whole expression might be represented by (abc) , or any other convenient notation, from which all the terms could be written down.

The notation $(abcd)$ might be employed to represent a similar function of the 16 quantities a_1, b_1, c_1, d_1, a_2 , &c., consisting of 24 terms, which can all be written down by the aid of the 24 permutations of the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4.

And, in general, taking n letters $a, b, c, \dots l$, we can write down a similar function consisting of $n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3.2.1$ terms, this being the number of permutations of the first n numbers, 1, 2, 3 $\dots n$.

Now the functions above referred to, which are of such frequent occurrence in mathematical analysis, differ from those just described in one respect only, viz.: of the $1.2.3 \dots n$ (which is an even number) terms, half are affected with positive, and half with negative signs, instead of being all positive, as in the expression written down on the preceding page.

We shall now give some instances of the functions which will be discussed in this chapter. They occur most frequently as the result of elimination from linear equations. If, for example, x and y be eliminated from the equations

$$a_1x + b_1y = 0, \quad a_2x + b_2y = 0,$$

the result is

$$a_1b_2 - a_2b_1 = 0.$$

Again, the result of eliminating x, y, z from the equations

$$a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = 0,$$

$$a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = 0,$$

$$a_3x + b_3y + c_3z = 0,$$

is, as the student will readily perceive by solving from two of the equations and substituting in the third,

$$a_1b_2c_3 - a_1b_3c_2 + a_2b_3c_1 - a_2b_1c_3 + a_3b_1c_2 - a_3b_2c_1 = 0; \quad (2)$$

and this function differs from (1) given on the preceding page only in having three of its terms negative, instead of having the six terms positive.

Similarly, the process of elimination from four linear equations gives rise to a function of the sixteen quantities a_1, b_1, c_1 ,

$a_1, a_2 b_2$, &c., which differs from the function above represented by $(abcd)$ only in having twelve of its terms negative.

Expressions of the kind here described are called *Determinants*.* The notation by which they are usually represented was first employed by Cauchy, and possesses many advantages in the treatment of these expressions. The quantities of which the function consists are arranged in a square between two vertical lines. For example, the notation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

represents the determinant $a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1$.

Similarly, the expression on the left-hand side of equation (2) is represented by the notation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

And, in general, the determinant of the n^2 quantities $a_1, b_1, c_1 \dots l_1, a_2, b_2$, &c., is represented by

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & . & . & . & l_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & . & . & . & l_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & . & . & . & l_3 \\ . & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ a_n & b_n & c_n & . & . & . & l_n \end{vmatrix}. \quad (3)$$

By taking the n letters in alphabetical order, and assigning to them suffixes corresponding to the $n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3.2.1$ permutations of the numbers $1, 2, 3, \dots n$, all the terms of the determinant can be written down. Half of the terms must receive positive, and half negative signs. In the next Article

* See Note A at the end of Vol. II.

the rule will be given by which the positive and negative terms are distinguished.

The individual letters $a_1, b_1, c_1, \dots a_2, \dots$ &c., of which a determinant is composed, are called *constituents*, and by some writers *elements*. Any series of constituents such as $a_1, b_1, c_1, \dots l_1$, arranged horizontally, form a *row* of the determinant; and any series such as $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots a_n$, arranged vertically, form a *column*. The term *line* will sometimes be used to express a row or column indifferently.

128. Rule with regard to Signs.—It is evident from the preceding Article that each term of the determinant will, since it contains all the letters, contain one constituent (and only one) from every column; and will also, since the suffixes in each term comprise all the numbers, contain one constituent (and only one) from every row. We may therefore regard the square array (3) of Art. 127 as the symbolical representation of a function consisting in general of $n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3.2.1$ terms, comprising all possible products which can be formed by taking one constituent and one only from each row, and one constituent and one only from each column. All that is required to give perfect definiteness to the function is to fix the sign to be attached to any particular term. For this purpose the following two rules are to be observed:—

(1). *The term $a_1b_2c_3 \dots l_n$, formed by the constituents situated in the diagonal drawn from the left-hand top corner to the right-hand bottom corner, is positive.*

This is called the *leading* or *principal* term. In it the suffixes and letters both occur in their natural order; and from it the sign of any other term is obtained by the following rule:—

(2). *The sign of any other term is positive or negative, according as it contains among its suffixes an even or odd number of inversions of order as compared with the suffixes of the leading term.*

The letters are supposed to retain the alphabetical order, and an “inversion” is said to occur whenever any higher

number precedes a lower among the suffixes. In the term $a_3b_4c_1d_2$, for example, there are four inversions, the number 3 occurring before 1 and before 2, and 4 occurring before 1 and before 2. Similarly, $a_3b_2c_5d_4e_1$ contains six inversions, as the student will readily perceive. The following will be found to be a useful modification of this rule:—*A transposition (or interchange) of two adjacent suffixes alters the sign of a term.* For it is easy to see that any such transposition is equivalent to the gain or loss of one inversion. No inversion, in fact, in the series is disturbed by the process, except such as depends on the relative position of the two adjacent suffixes when compared with one another. If before transposition these suffixes are in their natural order, one inversion is gained by the process; but if not, one is lost. In the arrangement 5342716, for example, the interchange of 2 and 7 introduces one additional inversion, the number being thus increased from eleven to twelve. The sign of the corresponding term in the determinant is therefore altered from $-$ to $+$.

It is easy now to justify the remark in Art. 127, that a determinant contains an equal number of positive and negative terms. For, from any term another can be derived which differs from the first only by the transposition of the last two suffixes, and these are the only two terms which agree in the order of permutation of the first $n - 2$ suffixes. All the terms, therefore, can be arranged in pairs such that if the first is positive, the second is negative, and *vice versa*.

EXAMPLES.

1. What is the sign of the term $a_3b_4c_2d_5e_1$ in the determinant of the 5th order?

The question is, How many inversions of order occur in 34251; or, How many interchanges will change the order 12345 into 34251? Here, when 3 is interchanged with 2, and afterwards with 1, it comes into the leading place, the order becoming 31245. Again, the interchange in 31245 of 4 with 2, and afterwards with 1, presents the order 34125. The interchange of 2 with 1 gives the order 34215; and finally, the interchange of 5 with 1 gives the required order 34251. Thus there are in all six interchanges; and therefore the required sign is positive.

The general mode of proceeding may plainly be stated as follows:—Take the figure which stands first in the required order, and move it from its place in the natural order 1234 . . . into the leading place, counting one displacement for each figure passed over. Take then the figure which stands second in the required order, and move it from its place in the natural order into the second place; and so on. If the number of displacements in this process be even, the sign is positive; if it be odd, the sign is negative.

2. What is the sign of the term $a_3b_7c_8d_5e_1f_4g_2$ in the determinant of the 7th order?

Here two displacements bring 3 to the leading place; five displacements then bring 7 to the second place; four then bring 6 to the third place; three then bring 5 to the fourth place; the figure 1 is in its place; and finally, one displacement brings 4 into the sixth place. Thus there are in all fifteen displacements; and the required sign is therefore negative.

3. Write down all the terms of the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix}$$

The six permutations of suffixes in which the figure 1 occurs first are

$$1234, \quad 1243, \quad 1324, \quad 1342, \quad 1423, \quad 1432.$$

The six corresponding terms are, as the student will easily see by applying the Rule (2), as in the previous examples,

$$a_1b_2c_3d_4 - a_1b_2c_4d_3 + a_1b_3c_4d_2 - a_1b_3c_2d_4 + a_1b_4c_2d_3 - a_1b_4c_3d_2.$$

The other eighteen terms, corresponding to the permutations in which the figures 2, 3, 4, respectively, stand first, are as follows:—

$$\begin{aligned} & a_2b_1c_4d_3 - a_2b_1c_3d_4 + a_2b_3c_1d_4 - a_2b_3c_4d_1 + a_2b_4c_3d_1 - a_2b_4c_1d_3 \\ & + a_3b_1c_2d_4 - a_3b_1c_4d_2 + a_3b_2c_4d_1 - a_3b_2c_1d_4 + a_3b_4c_1d_2 - a_3b_4c_2d_1 \\ & + a_4b_1c_3d_2 - a_4b_1c_2d_3 + a_4b_2c_1d_3 - a_4b_2c_3d_1 + a_4b_3c_2d_1 - a_4b_3c_1d_2. \end{aligned}$$

4. Show that any interchange of two suffixes (the letters retaining their order) alters the sign of a term.

For, if there are m elements between the two whose suffixes are interchanged, the proposed transposition can be effected by $2m + 1$ transpositions of adjacent suffixes. By the aid of this proposition the sign of a term can usually be found by a smaller number of transpositions than is required in the general method described in Ex. 1. Thus, in Ex. 2, five transpositions are enough to fix the sign of the term, viz.: first, of 1 with 3, and then in succession 1 with 6, 1 with 4, 1 with 5, and finally 2 with 7. The determination of the smallest number of transpositions necessary for this purpose is easily shown to depend on an elementary proposition in the theory of substitutions. (Compare Chap. XX. of this Vol.)

5. Show that any interchange of two letters, the order of the suffixes being retained, alters the sign of a term.

For, if two letters be interchanged, and the corresponding elements then interchanged, the entire process is equivalent to an interchange of suffixes. If, for example, in $a_1b_2c_3d_4e_5$, b and e be interchanged, we derive $a_1e_2c_3d_4b_5$, which is equal to $a_1b_5c_3d_4e_2$; and this is derived from the given term by transposition of the suffixes 2 and 5.

6. Show that if any two adjacent figures be moved together over any number m of figures, the sign is unaltered.

For if they be moved separately, the whole process is equivalent to a movement over $2m$ figures.

7. Determine the sign to be attached to the second diagonal term, viz. $a_nb_{n-1}c_{n-2} \dots k_2l_1$, in the determinant of the n^{th} order.

Here the number of inversions of order is clearly

$$(n-1) + (n-2) + (n-3) + \dots + 2 + 1 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}.$$

Hence the required sign is $(-1)^{\frac{n(n-1)}{2}}$.

129. In the propositions of the present and following Articles are contained the most important elementary properties of determinants which, by the aid of Cauchy's notation above described, render the employment of these functions of such practical advantage.

PROP. I.—*If any two rows, or any two columns, of a determinant be interchanged, the sign of the determinant is changed.*

This follows at once from the mode of formation (Rule (2), Art. 128); for an interchange of two rows is the same as an interchange of two suffixes, and an interchange of two columns is the same as an interchange of two letters; so that in either case the sign of every term of the determinant is changed. (See Exs. 4 and 5, Art. 128.)

By aid of this proposition the rule for obtaining the sign of any term may be stated in a form which is usually more convenient for practical purposes than that already given. It will readily be perceived that the general mode of procedure explained in Ex. 1, Art. 128, is equivalent to the following.

Bring by movements of rows (or columns) the constituents of the term whose sign is required into the position of the leading diagonal. The sign of the term will be positive or negative according as the number of displacements is even or odd.

EXAMPLE.

What sign is to be attached to the term $\lambda\beta n x$ in the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c & x \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & y \\ l & m & n & \\ \lambda & \mu & \nu & 0 \end{vmatrix} ?$$

Here a movement of the fourth row over three rows (*i.e.* three displacements) brings λ into the leading place. One displacement of the original second row upwards brings β into the required place in the diagonal term. And one further displacement of the original third row upwards effects the required arrangement, bringing $\lambda\beta n x$ into the diagonal place. Thus the number of displacements being odd, the required sign is negative.

130. PROP. II.—*Whenever, in any determinant, two rows or two columns are identical, the determinant vanishes.*

For, by Prop. I., the interchange of these two lines ought to change the sign of the determinant Δ ; but the interchange of two identical rows or columns cannot alter the determinant in any way; hence $\Delta = -\Delta$, or $\Delta = 0$.

131. PROP. III.—*The value of a determinant is not altered if the rows be written as columns, and the columns as rows.*

For all the terms, formed by taking one constituent from each row and one from each column, are plainly the same in value in both cases; the principal term is identically the same; and to determine the sign of any other term (by Prop. I.) the number of displacements of rows necessary to bring it into the leading diagonal in the first case is the same as the number of displacements of columns necessary in the second case.

EXAMPLE.

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & b_4 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 & c_4 \\ d_1 & d_2 & d_3 & d_4 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Here the sign of any term, e.g. $a_2b_4c_1d_3$, is the same in both determinants. For three displacements of rows are required to bring this term into the leading position in the first determinant; and the same number of displacements of columns is required to bring the same constituents into the leading position in the second determinant.

132. PROP. IV.—*If every constituent in any line be multiplied by the same factor, the determinant is multiplied by that factor.*

For every term of the determinant must contain one, and only one, constituent from any row or any column.

Cor. 1. If the constituents in any line differ only by the same factor from the constituents in any parallel line, the determinant vanishes.

Cor. 2. If the signs of all the constituents in any line be changed, the sign of the determinant is changed. For this is equivalent to multiplying by the factor -1 .

EXAMPLES.

$$1. \quad \begin{vmatrix} ka_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ ka_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ ka_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} \equiv k \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

$$2. \quad \begin{vmatrix} \alpha_1 & m\alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \beta_1 & m\beta_1 & \beta_2 \\ \gamma_1 & m\gamma_1 & \gamma_2 \end{vmatrix} \equiv m \begin{vmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \beta_1 & \beta_1 & \beta_2 \\ \gamma_1 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 \end{vmatrix} \equiv 0.$$

3. Show that the following determinant vanishes :—

$$\begin{vmatrix} 3 & 1 & 5 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 & 7 & 3 \\ 8 & 9 & 1 & 4 \\ 6 & 15 & 21 & 9 \end{vmatrix}.$$

4. Prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} bc & a & a^2 \\ ca & b & b^2 \\ ab & c & c^2 \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 1 & a^2 & a^3 \\ 1 & b^2 & b^3 \\ 1 & c^2 & c^3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Represent the first determinant by Δ , and multiply the rows by a, b, c , respectively. We have then

$$abc\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} abc & a^2 & a^3 \\ abc & b^2 & b^3 \\ abc & c^2 & c^3 \end{vmatrix};$$

and, dividing the first column by abc , the result follows.

5. Prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} \beta\gamma\delta & \alpha & \alpha^2 & \alpha^3 \\ \gamma\delta\alpha & \beta & \beta^2 & \beta^3 \\ \delta\alpha\beta & \gamma & \gamma^2 & \gamma^3 \\ \alpha\beta\gamma & \delta & \delta^2 & \delta^3 \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha^2 & \alpha^3 & \alpha^4 \\ 1 & \beta^2 & \beta^3 & \beta^4 \\ 1 & \gamma^2 & \gamma^3 & \gamma^4 \\ 1 & \delta^2 & \delta^3 & \delta^4 \end{vmatrix}.$$

6. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 & 1 & -7 \\ -4 & -3 & 8 \\ 6 & 5 & -9 \end{vmatrix} \equiv 2 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 7 \\ 2 & 3 & 8 \\ 3 & 5 & 9 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Change all the signs of the second row, and afterwards of the third column.

7. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ \alpha' & \beta' & \gamma' \\ \alpha'' & \beta'' & \gamma'' \end{vmatrix} \equiv \frac{1}{\alpha\beta\gamma} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha'\beta\gamma & \beta'\gamma\alpha & \gamma'a\beta \\ \alpha''\beta\gamma & \beta''\gamma\alpha & \gamma''a\beta \end{vmatrix}.$$

This is easily proved by multiplying the columns of the first determinant by $\beta\gamma, \gamma\alpha, \alpha\beta$, respectively; and then dividing the first row by $\alpha\beta\gamma$.

It is evident that a similar process may be employed to reduce any determinant to one in which all the constituents of any selected row or column shall be units.

8. Reduce the following determinant to one in which the first row shall consist of units:—

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 2 & 5 & 10 \\ 1 & 1 & 6 & 3 \\ 7 & 3 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 2 & 5 & 8 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Since 20 is the least common multiple of 4, 2, 5, 10, it is sufficient to multiply the columns in order by 5, 10, 4, 2; we thus obtain

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{5 \cdot 10 \cdot 4 \cdot 2} \begin{vmatrix} 20 & 20 & 20 & 20 \\ 5 & 10 & 24 & 6 \\ 35 & 30 & 0 & 10 \\ 0 & 20 & 20 & 16 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Taking out the multiplier 20 from the first row, 5 from the third row, and 4 from the fourth row, we get finally

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 5 & 10 & 24 & 6 \\ 7 & 6 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 5 & 5 & 4 \end{vmatrix}.$$

9. Prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 \end{vmatrix} \equiv (\beta - \gamma)(\gamma - \alpha)(\alpha - \beta).$$

Since if β were equal to γ , two columns would become identical, $\beta - \gamma$ must be a factor in the determinant. Similarly, $\gamma - \alpha$ and $\alpha - \beta$ must be factors in it. Hence the product of the three differences can differ by a numerical factor only from the value of the determinant, since both functions are of the third degree in α, β, γ ; and by comparing the term $\beta\gamma^2$ we observe that this factor is + 1.

10. Prove similarly the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & \delta^2 \\ \alpha^3 & \beta^3 & \gamma^3 & \delta^3 \end{vmatrix} \equiv -(\beta - \gamma)(\alpha - \delta)(\gamma - \alpha)(\beta - \delta)(\alpha - \beta)(\gamma - \delta).$$

It is evident that a similar proof shows in general that the value of the determinant of this form, constituted by the n quantities $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \dots \lambda$, is the product of the $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$ differences which can be formed with these n quantities.

133. Minor Determinants. Definitions.—When in a determinant any number of rows and the same number of columns are suppressed, the determinant formed by the remaining constituents (maintaining their relative positions) is called a *minor determinant*.

If one row and one column only be suppressed, the corresponding minor is called a *first minor*. If two rows and two columns be suppressed, the minor is called a *second minor*; and so on. The suppressed rows and columns have common constituents forming a determinant; and the minor which remains is said to be *complementary* to this determinant. The minor complementary to the leading constituent a_1 is called the *leading first minor*, and its leading first minor again is the *leading second minor* of the original determinant.

It is usual to denote a determinant in general by Δ . We shall denote by Δ_a the first minor obtained by suppressing in Δ the row and column which contain any constituent a ; by $\Delta_{a,\beta}$ the second minor obtained by suppressing the two rows and two columns which contain a and β ; and so on. Thus Δ_{a_1} represents the leading first minor, and Δ_{a_1, b_2} or Δ_{a_2, b_1} the leading second minor.

The determinant Δ , formed by the constituents $a_1, b_1, c_1, \&c.$, is often denoted for brevity by placing the leading term within brackets as follows:—

$$\Delta = (a_1 b_2 c_3 \dots l_n).$$

The notation $\Sigma \pm a_1 b_2 c_3 \dots l_n$ is also used to represent Δ ; this expressing its constitution as consisting of the sum of a number of terms (with their proper signs attached) formed by taking all possible permutations of the n suffixes.

134. Development of Determinants.—Since every term of any determinant contains one, and only one, constituent from each row and from each column, it follows that Δ is a linear and homogeneous function of the constituents of any one row or any one

column. We may therefore write

$$\Delta = a_1 A_1 + a_2 A_2 + a_3 A_3 + \&c.,$$

$$\Delta = b_1 B_1 + b_2 B_2 + b_3 B_3 + \&c.;$$

or, again, $\Delta = a_1 A_1 + b_1 B_1 + c_1 C_1 + \&c.,$

$$\Delta = a_2 A_2 + b_2 B_2 + c_2 C_2 + \&c.$$

The student, on referring to Ex. 3, Art. 128, will observe that the determinant of the fourth order there written at length is constituted in the way here described, namely,

$$\Delta = a_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix} + a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \\ b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix} + a_4 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

We proceed to show that in the general case, writing Δ in the form

$$\Delta = a_1 A_1 + a_2 A_2 + a_3 A_3 + \dots + a_n A_n,$$

the coefficients $A_1, A_2, A_3, \&c.$, are determinants of the order $n - 1$.

In effecting all the permutations of the suffixes $1, 2, 3 \dots n$, suppose first 1 to remain in the leading place, as in the example referred to; we then obtain $1.2.3 \dots (n - 1)$ terms which have a_1 as a factor, and

$$a_1 A_1 = a_1 \Sigma \pm b_2 c_3 \dots l_n;$$

hence

$$A_1 = \Sigma \pm b_2 c_3 \dots l_n = \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & c_2 & \dots & l_2 \\ b_3 & c_3 & \dots & l_3 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ b_n & c_n & \dots & l_n \end{vmatrix};$$

and this determinant is the minor corresponding to the constituent a_1 , or $A_1 = \Delta_{a_1}$.

To find the value of A_2 , we bring a_2 into the leading place by one displacement of rows. This changes the sign of Δ , so that we obtain $A_2 = - \Delta_{a_2}$, i.e. A_2 = the minor corresponding to a_2 with its sign changed. Again, bringing a_3 to the leading place by two displacements, we have $A_3 = \Delta_a$; and so on.

Thus we conclude that, in general,

$$\Delta = a_1\Delta_{a_1} - a_2\Delta_{a_2} + a_3\Delta_{a_3} - a_4\Delta_{a_4} + \&c.$$

Similarly, we can expand Δ in terms of the constituents of any other column, or any row. For example,

$$\Delta = a_1\Delta_{a_1} - b_1\Delta_{b_1} + c_1\Delta_{c_1} - \&c.$$

If it be required to obtain the proper sign to be attached to the minor which multiplies any constituent in the expanded form, we have only to consider how many displacements would bring that constituent to the leading place. For example, suppose the determinant $(a_1b_2c_3d_4e_5)$ is expanded in terms of its fourth column, and that it is required to find what sign is to be attached to $d_3\Delta_{d_3}$. Here two displacements upwards, and afterwards three to the left, will bring d_3 to the leading place; hence the sign is negative. This rule may be stated simply as follows: *Proceed from a_1 to the constituent under consideration along the top row, and down the column containing the constituent; the number of letters passed over before reaching the constituent will decide the sign to be attached to the minor.* In the example just given, beginning at a_1 , we count a_1, b_1, c_1, d_1, d_2 , i. e. five; and this number being odd, the required sign is negative.

It will be found convenient to retain both notations here employed for the development of a determinant. The expansion in terms of the minors, with signs alternately positive and negative, is useful in calculating the value of a determinant by successive reductions to determinants of lower degree. For some purposes, as will appear in the Articles which follow, it is more convenient to employ the notation first given, in which the signs are all positive (whatever the row or column under consideration) and the coefficient (or co-factor) of any constituent represented by the corresponding capital letter. By substituting for the capital letter the corresponding minor with the proper sign, determined in the manner above explained, the latter notation is changed into the former.

EXAMPLES.

$$1. \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 \begin{vmatrix} b_2 & c_2 \\ b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - a_2 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_3 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 \\ b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= a_1 b_2 c_3 - a_1 b_3 c_2 - a_2 b_1 c_3 + a_2 b_3 c_1 + a_3 b_1 c_2 - a_3 b_2 c_1.$$

(Compare (2), Art. 127.)

$$2. \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} b & f \\ f & c \end{vmatrix} - h \begin{vmatrix} h & g \\ f & c \end{vmatrix} + g \begin{vmatrix} h & g \\ b & f \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= abc + 2fgh - af^2 - bg^2 - ch^2.$$

3. Expand the determinant of the fourth order in terms of the constituents of the fourth row.

$$\Delta = -a_4 \Delta_{a_4} + b_4 \Delta_{b_4} - c_4 \Delta_{c_4} + d_4 \Delta_{d_4}.$$

$$= -a_4 \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} + b_4 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & c_3 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} - c_4 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & d_3 \end{vmatrix} + d_4 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

When the determinants of the third order are expanded, this will give the expression of Ex. 3, Art. 128, as the student will easily verify.

$$4. \begin{vmatrix} 3 & 2 & 4 \\ 7 & 6 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 & 8 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \begin{vmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 3 & 8 \end{vmatrix} - 7 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 3 & 8 \end{vmatrix} + 5 \begin{vmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= 3(48 - 3) - 7(16 - 12) + 5(2 - 24)$$

$$= -3.$$

5. Find the value of the determinant

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 8 & 7 & 2 & 20 \\ 3 & 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 5 & 0 & 11 & 0 \\ 8 & 1 & 0 & 6 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Expanding in terms of the third row, since two of the constituents in that row vanish, we have without difficulty

$$\Delta = 5 \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 2 & 20 \\ 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 1 & 0 & 6 \end{vmatrix} + 11 \begin{vmatrix} 8 & 7 & 20 \\ 3 & 1 & 7 \\ 8 & 1 & 6 \end{vmatrix};$$

and expanding the two determinants of the third order, we find $\Delta = 2188$.

6. Expand

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & c & b & d \\ c & 0 & a & e \\ b & a & 0 & f \\ d & e & f & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The expansion is $a^2d^2 + b^2e^2 + c^2f^2 - 2bcef - 2cafd - 2abde$; the given determinant is therefore equal to the product of the four factors

$$\begin{aligned} & \sqrt{ad} + \sqrt{be} + \sqrt{cf}, & \sqrt{ad} - \sqrt{be} - \sqrt{cf}, \\ & -\sqrt{ad} + \sqrt{be} - \sqrt{cf}, & -\sqrt{ad} - \sqrt{be} + \sqrt{cf}, \end{aligned}$$

a result which is sometimes useful.

7. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ -\alpha & 1 & \gamma' & -\beta' \\ -\beta & -\gamma' & 1 & \alpha' \\ -\gamma & \beta' & -\alpha' & 1 \end{vmatrix} = 1 + \alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2 + \alpha'^2 + \beta'^2 + \gamma'^2 + (\alpha\alpha' + \beta\beta' + \gamma\gamma')^2.$$

8. Expand

$$\begin{vmatrix} -a & b & c & d \\ b & -a & d & c \\ c & d & -a & b \\ d & c & b & -a \end{vmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Ans. } a^4 + b^4 + c^4 + d^4 - 2b^2c^2 - 2c^2a^2 - 2a^2b^2 - 2a^2d^2 - 2b^2d^2 - 2c^2d^2 - 8abcd.$$

9. Prove the following identity, and expand the determinants:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & x^2 & y^2 \\ 1 & x^2 & 0 & x^3 \\ 1 & y^2 & x^2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 0 & x & y & z \\ x & 0 & z & y \\ y & z & 0 & x \\ z & y & x & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Ans. } x^4 + y^4 + z^4 - 2y^2z^2 - 2z^2x^2 - 2x^2y^2.$$

10. Find the value of the determinant

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g & \lambda \\ h & b & f & \mu \\ g & f & c & \nu \\ \lambda & \mu & \nu & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Expand first in terms of the last row or last column, and then each of the determinants of the third order in terms of λ, μ, ν .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ans. } -\Delta = & (bc - f^2)\lambda^2 + (ca - g^2)\mu^2 + (ab - h^2)\nu^2 + 2(g\hbar - af)\mu\nu \\ & + 2(hf - bg)\nu\lambda + 2(fg - ch)\lambda\mu. \end{aligned}$$

135. Laplace's Development of a Determinant.—

The expansion explained in the preceding Article is included in a more general mode of development given by Laplace. In place of expanding the determinant as a linear function of the constituents of any line, we now expand it as a linear function of the minors comprised in any number of lines.

Consider, for example, the first two columns (a, b) of any determinant; and let all possible determinants of the second order (a_p, b_q), obtained by taking any two rows of these two columns, be formed. Let the minor formed by suppressing the a_p and b_q lines be represented by $\Delta_{p,q}$; then the determinant can be expanded in the form $\Sigma \pm (a_p b_q) \Delta_{p,q}$, where each term is the product of two complementary determinants (see Art. 133). To prove this, we observe that every term of the determinant must contain one constituent from the column a and one from the column b . Suppose a term to contain the factor $a_p b_q$; there must then (interchanging p and q) be another term differing only in the sign and the interchange of these suffixes; hence, the determinant can be expanded in the form $\Sigma (a_p b_q) A_{p,q}$; and $A_{p,q}$ is clearly the sum of all the terms which can be obtained by permuting in every possible way the $n - 2$ suffixes of the letters c, d, e , &c., viz. $\pm \Delta_{p,q}$, the sign being determined in any particular instance by the rule of Art. 128. This reasoning can easily be extended to the general case. Let any number p of columns be taken, and all possible minors formed by taking p rows of these columns. Each of these minors is to be then multiplied by the complementary minor, and the determinant expressed as the sum of all such products with their proper signs.

EXAMPLES.

1. Expand the determinant ($a_1 b_2 c_3 d_4$) in terms of the minors of the second order formed from the first two columns.

Employing the bracket notation, we can write down the result as follows:—

$(a_1 b_2) (c_3 d_4) - (a_1 b_3) (c_2 d_4) + (a_1 b_4) (c_2 d_3) + (a_2 b_3) (c_1 d_4) - (a_2 b_4) (c_1 d_3) + (a_3 b_4) (c_1 d_2)$; where the sign to be attached to any product is determined by moving the two rows involved in the first factor into the positions of first and second row. Thus, for

example, since three displacements are required to move the second and fourth rows into these positions, the sign of the product $(a_2b_4)(c_1d_3)$ is negative.

2. Expand similarly the determinant $(a_1b_2c_3d_4e_5)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ans. } & (a_1b_2)(c_3d_4e_5) - (a_1b_3)(c_2d_4e_5) + (a_1b_4)(c_2d_3e_5) - (a_1b_5)(c_2d_3e_4) \\ & + (a_2b_3)(c_1d_4e_5) - (a_2b_4)(c_1d_3e_5) + (a_2b_5)(c_1d_3e_4) + (a_3b_4)(c_1d_2e_5) \\ & - (a_3b_5)(c_1d_2e_4) + (a_4b_5)(c_1d_2e_3). \end{aligned}$$

3. Prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 & e_1 & f_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 & e_2 & f_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 & e_3 & f_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_1 & \beta_1 & \gamma_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_2 & \beta_2 & \gamma_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_3 & \beta_3 & \gamma_3 \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & \beta_1 & \gamma_1 \\ a_2 & \beta_2 & \gamma_2 \\ a_3 & \beta_3 & \gamma_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

This appears by expanding the determinant in terms of the minors formed from the first three columns, for it is evident that all these minors vanish (having one row at least of ciphers) except one, viz. $(a_1b_2c_3)$.

In general, it appears in the same way that if a determinant of the $2m^{\text{th}}$ order contains in any position a square of m^2 ciphers, it can be expressed as the product of two determinants of the m^{th} order.

4. Expand the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & h & g & \lambda & \lambda' \\ h & b & f & \mu & \mu' \\ g & f & c & \nu & \\ \lambda & \mu & \nu & 0 & 0 \\ \lambda' & \mu' & \nu' & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

in powers of α, β, γ , where

$$\alpha \equiv \mu\nu' - \mu'\nu, \quad \beta \equiv \nu\lambda' - \nu'\lambda, \quad \gamma \equiv \lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu.$$

$$\text{Ans. } a\alpha^2 + b\beta^2 + c\gamma^2 + 2f\beta\gamma + 2g\gamma\alpha + 2ha\beta.$$

5. Verify the development of the present Article by showing that it gives in the general case the proper number of terms.

Consider the first r columns of a determinant of the n^{th} order. The number of minors formed from these is equal to the number of combinations of n things taken r together. This number multiplied by $1.2.3 \dots r$ (the number of terms in each minor), and $1.2.3 \dots n-r$ (the number of terms in each complementary minor), will be found to give $1.2.3 \dots n$, viz. the number of terms in the determinant.

136. Development of a Determinant in Products of the leading Constituents.—In this and the next following Articles will be explained two additional modes of development which will be found useful in the expansion of certain determinants of special form. The application which follows will be sufficient to show how any determinant may be expanded in products of the leading constituents—

It is required to expand the determinant of the fourth order

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} A & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & B & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & C & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & D \end{vmatrix}$$

according to the products of A, B, C, D . In order to give prominence to the leading constituents, we have here replaced a_1, b_2, c_3, d_4 by A, B, C, D . When the expansion is effected, it is plain that the result must be of the form

$$\Delta = \Delta_0 + \Sigma \lambda A + \Sigma \lambda' AB + ABCD,$$

where Δ_0 consists of all the terms in which no leading constituent occurs; $\Sigma \lambda A$ is the sum of all the terms in which one only of these constituents occurs; $\Sigma \lambda' AB$ is the sum of all in which the product of a pair of the leading constituents is found; and $ABCD$, the leading term, is the product of all these constituents. It will be observed that the expansion here written contains no terms of the form $\lambda'' ABC$; and it is evident, in general, that the expanded determinant can contain no terms in which products of all the leading constituents but one occur, since the coefficient of any such product is the remaining diagonal constituent. It only remains to see what is the form of Δ_0 , and of the undetermined coefficients $\lambda, \mu, \dots \lambda', \mu', \dots$ &c.

Putting A, B, C, D all equal to zero in the identity above written, we have

$$\Delta_0 \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & 0 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & 0 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Again, to obtain λ , let B, C, D be made equal to zero. The coefficient of A is clearly the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & c_2 & d_2 \\ b_3 & 0 & d_3 \\ b_4 & c_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix};$$

the coefficient of B is similarly obtained by replacing A, C, D each by zero in the

minor complementary to B ; and so on. To obtain λ' , let C and D be made zero; the coefficient of AB in the resulting determinant is plainly the second minor

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & d_3 \\ c_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The coefficient of any other product is obtained in a similar manner. Finally, the expansion of Δ may be written in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & 0 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & 0 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\ + A \begin{vmatrix} 0 & c_2 & d_2 \\ b_3 & 0 & d_3 \\ b_4 & c_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + B \begin{vmatrix} 0 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_3 & 0 & d_3 \\ a_4 & c_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + C \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & 0 & d_2 \\ a_4 & b_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + D \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & 0 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\ + AB \begin{vmatrix} 0 & d_3 \\ c_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + AC \begin{vmatrix} 0 & d_2 \\ b_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + AD \begin{vmatrix} 0 & c_2 \\ b_3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + BC \begin{vmatrix} 0 & d_1 \\ a_4 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + BD \begin{vmatrix} 0 & c_1 \\ a_3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} + CD \begin{vmatrix} 0 & b_1 \\ a_2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\ + ABCD.$$

A determinant whose leading constituents all vanish has been called *zero-axial*. The result just obtained may be stated as follows:—*Any determinant may be expanded in products of the leading constituents, the co-factor of every product in the result being a zero-axial determinant.*

137. Expansion of a Determinant in Products in Pairs of the Constituents of a Row and Column.—

In what follows we take the first row and first column as those in terms of which the expansion is required. This is evidently sufficient, since any other row and column may be brought by displacements into these positions. It will be found convenient to write the determinant under consideration in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_0 & a & \beta & \gamma & . \\ a' & a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & . \\ \beta' & a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & . \\ \gamma' & a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & . \\ . & . & . & . & . \end{vmatrix}.$$

Let this be denoted by Δ' , and its leading first minor ($a_1b_2c_3\dots$) by the usual notation Δ . The determinant Δ' may be said to be derived from Δ by *bordering* it, horizontally with the constituents $a_0, a, \beta, \gamma, \dots$, and vertically with the constituents $a_0, a', \beta', \gamma' \dots$. When Δ' is expanded, all the terms which contain a_0 are included in $a_0\Delta$. In addition to this, the expansion will consist of the product of every other constituent of the first column by every other constituent of the first row, every such product of two being multiplied by its proper factor. What this factor is in the case of any product is easily seen. Let the co-factors of $a_1, b_1, c_1, \dots a_2, b_2, \dots$ &c., in the expansion of Δ be $A_1, B_1, \dots A_2, B_2, \dots$, according to the notation explained in Art. 134. It is plain that the factor which multiplies any product, for example aa' , in the expansion of Δ' , is the same as the factor which multiplies a_0a_1 with sign changed, viz. $-A_1$; similarly the factor which multiplies $a'\beta$ is the factor with sign changed of a_0b_1 , viz. $-B_1$; and so on. To obtain the factor of any such product, the rule clearly is—*Find the fourth constituent completing the rectangle formed by the leading term a_0 and the two constituents which enter into the product: the required factor is obtained by substituting for the constituent of Δ so found the corresponding capital letter with the negative sign.* It appears therefore finally that the expansion of Δ' may be written in the following form:—

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta' &\equiv a_0\Delta - A_1aa' - B_1\beta a' - C_1\gamma a' - \dots \\ &\quad - A_2a\beta' - B_2\beta\beta' - C_2\gamma\beta' - \dots \\ &\quad - A_3a\gamma' - B_3\beta\gamma' - C_3\gamma\gamma' - \dots \\ &\quad - \&c.\end{aligned}$$

Examples of the utility of this mode of expansion will be found under a subsequent Article.

138. Addition of Determinants. PROP. V.—*If every constituent in any line can be resolved into the sum of two others, the determinant can be resolved into the sum of two others.*

Suppose the constituents of the first column to be $a_1 + a_1$, $a_2 + a_2$, $a_3 + a_3$, &c. Substituting these in the expansion of Art. 134, we have

$$\Delta = (a_1 + a_1) A_1 + (a_2 + a_2) A_2 + (a_3 + a_3) A_3 + \&c.$$

$$= a_1 A_1 + a_2 A_2 + a_3 A_3 + \dots \&c. + a_1 A_1 + a_2 A_2 + a_3 A_3 + \&c. ;$$

or,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 + a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & \dots \\ a_2 + a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & \dots \\ a_3 + a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & \dots \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & \dots \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & \dots \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & \dots \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \end{vmatrix},$$

which proves the proposition.

If a second column consists of the sum of two others, it is easily seen, by first resolving with reference to one column, and afterwards with reference to the other, that the determinant can be resolved into the sum of four others. For example, the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 + a_1 & b_1 + \beta_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 + a_2 & b_2 + \beta_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 + a_3 & b_3 + \beta_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

is (in the notation of Art. 133) equal to the sum of the four determinants

$$(a_1 b_2 c_3) + (a_1 b_2 c_3) + (a_1 \beta_2 c_3) + (a_1 \beta_2 c_3).$$

Similarly it follows that if each of the constituents of one column consists of the algebraical sum of any number of terms, the determinant can be resolved into a corresponding number of determinants. For example—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 - a_1 + a'_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 - a_2 + a'_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 - a_3 + a'_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} - \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + \begin{vmatrix} a'_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a'_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a'_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

And, in general, if one column consists of the algebraic sum of m others, a second column of the sum of n others, a third of the sum of p others, &c., the determinant can be resolved into the sum of $mnp \dots$, &c., others.

Similar results plainly hold with regard to the rows, which may be substituted for columns in the proof just given.

139. PROP. VI.—*If the constituents of one line are equal to the sums of the corresponding constituents of the other lines multiplied by constant factors, the determinant vanishes.*

For it can then be resolved into the sum of a number of determinants which separately vanish. For example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} ma_1 + nb_1 & a_1 & b_1 \\ ma_2 + nb_2 & a_2 & b_2 \\ ma_3 + nb_3 & a_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} = m \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & a_2 & b_2 \\ a_3 & a_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix} + n \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & a_1 & b_1 \\ b_2 & a_2 & b_2 \\ b_3 & a_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix},$$

and each of the latter determinants vanishes (Art. 130).

140. PROP. VII.—*A determinant is unchanged when to each constituent of any row or column are added those of several other rows or columns multiplied respectively by constant factors.*

For when the determinant is resolved into the sum of others, as in Art. 138, the determinants in which the added lines occur all vanish, since each of them must, when the constant factor is removed, contain two identical lines. Thus, for example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 + mb_1 + nc_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 + mb_2 + nc_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 + mb_3 + nc_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix};$$

for when the second determinant is expressed as the sum of three others, the two arising from the added columns vanish identically (Art. 139).

The proposition of the present Article supplies in practice one of the most useful properties in the evaluation of determinants.

EXAMPLES.

1. Show that the following determinant vanishes :—

$$\begin{vmatrix} \beta + \gamma & \alpha & 1 \\ \gamma + \alpha & \beta & 1 \\ \alpha + \beta & \gamma & 1 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Adding the constituents of the second column to those of the first, we can take out $\alpha + \beta + \gamma$ as a factor, and two columns then become identical.

2. Find the value of the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 & 7 \\ 3 & 4 & 10 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Subtracting the constituents of the first column from those of the second, and three times the constituents of the first column from those of the third, we obtain

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 \end{vmatrix},$$

which vanishes identically.

$$3. \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -16.$$

Here the first transformation is obtained by adding in succession the constituents of the first row to those of the second, third, and fourth.

$$4. \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 11 & 4 \\ 13 & 15 & 10 \\ 3 & 9 & 6 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \begin{vmatrix} 7 & 11 & 4 \\ 13 & 15 & 10 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \begin{vmatrix} 7 & -10 & -10 \\ 13 & -24 & -16 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 3 \begin{vmatrix} 10 & 10 \\ 24 & 16 \end{vmatrix} \\ = 30(16 - 24) = -240.$$

Here the second transformation is obtained by subtracting three times the first column from the second, and twice the first from the third. In examples of this kind, attempts should be made to reduce to zero all the constituents except one in some row or column, in which case the calculation reduces to that of a determinant of lower order. This can always be done by reducing any one line to units, as

in Ex. 7, Art. 132; but, in general, it can be effected more readily by direct additions or subtractions, as in the present instance.

$$5. \begin{vmatrix} 7 & -2 & 0 & 5 \\ -2 & 6 & -2 & 2 \\ 0 & -2 & 5 & 3 \\ 5 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 7 & -2 & 0 & 5 \\ 19 & 0 & -2 & 17 \\ -7 & 0 & 5 & -2 \\ 12 & 0 & 3 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 19 & -2 & 17 \\ -7 & 5 & -2 \\ 12 & 3 & 9 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The first transformation is obtained by adding to the second row three times the first, subtracting the first from the third row, and adding the first to the fourth row. The reduced determinant is easily calculated by subtracting four times the second column from the first, and three times the second column from the third.

Thus

$$2 \begin{vmatrix} 19 & -2 & 17 \\ -7 & 5 & -2 \\ 12 & 3 & 9 \end{vmatrix} = 2 \begin{vmatrix} 27 & -2 & 23 \\ -27 & 5 & -17 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = -6 \begin{vmatrix} 27 & 23 \\ -27 & -17 \end{vmatrix} = -972.$$

6. Calculate the determinant

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 15 & 14 & 4 \\ 12 & 6 & 7 & 9 \\ 8 & 10 & 11 & 5 \\ 13 & 3 & 2 & 16 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The first sixteen natural numbers are arranged here in what is called a "magic square," *i.e.* the sum of all the figures in any row or in any column is constant. In general, for a square of the first n^2 numbers, this sum is $\frac{1}{2}n(n^2 + 1)$. Determinants of this kind can be at once reduced one degree. Here, adding the last three columns to the first, and subtracting the last row from each of the others, we have

$$\Delta = 34 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 15 & 14 & 4 \\ 1 & 6 & 7 & 9 \\ 1 & 10 & 11 & 5 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 16 \end{vmatrix} = 34 \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 12 & 12 & -12 \\ 0 & 3 & 5 & -7 \\ 0 & 7 & 9 & -11 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 16 \end{vmatrix} = -34 \times 12 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 3 & 5 & -7 \\ 7 & 9 & -11 \end{vmatrix};$$

and subtracting the second row from the last row, it is evident that the reduced determinant vanishes; hence $\Delta = 0$.

7. Calculate the determinant formed by the first nine natural numbers arranged in a magic square:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 4 & 9 & 2 \\ 3 & 5 & 7 \\ 8 & 1 & 6 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Ans. 360.

8. Calculate the determinant formed by the first twenty-five natural numbers arranged in a magic square:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 10 & 18 & 1 & 14 & 22 \\ 4 & 12 & 25 & 8 & 16 \\ 23 & 6 & 19 & 2 & 15 \\ 17 & 5 & 13 & 21 & 9 \\ 11 & 24 & 7 & 20 & 3 \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{Ans.} - 4680000.$$

9. Evaluate, by the method of the present Article, the determinant of Ex. 9, Art. 134.

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & z^2 & y^2 \\ 1 & z^2 & 0 & x^2 \\ 1 & y^2 & x^2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & z^2 & y^2 \\ 1 & z^2 & -x^2 & x^2 - z^2 \\ 1 & y^2 & x^2 - y^2 & -y^2 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & z^2 & y^2 \\ 1 & -z^2 & x^2 - z^2 \\ 1 & x^2 - y^2 & -y^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Here, to obtain the second determinant, we subtract the second column from each of the following ones. In the reduced determinant, subtracting the first row from each of the following, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta &= - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & z^2 & y^2 \\ 0 & -2z^2 & x^2 - z^2 - y^2 \\ 0 & x^2 - y^2 - z^2 & -2y^2 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} 2z^2 & y^2 + z^2 - x^2 \\ y^2 + z^2 - x^2 & 2y^2 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (y^2 + z^2 - x^2)^2 - 4y^2z^2 \\ &= (y^2 + z^2 - x^2 + 2yz)(y^2 + z^2 - x^2 - 2yz) \\ &= \{(y + z)^2 - x^2\} \{(y - z)^2 - x^2\} \\ &= -(x + y + z)(y + z - x)(x + y - z)(x + y + z). \end{aligned}$$

10. Prove the identity

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} (b+c)^2 & a^2 & a^2 \\ b^2 & (c+a)^2 & b^2 \\ c^2 & c^2 & (a+b)^2 \end{vmatrix} \equiv 2abc(a+b+c)^3.$$

Subtracting the last column from each of the others, $(a+b+c)^2$ may be taken out as a factor. Calling the remaining determinant Δ' , and subtracting in it the sum of the first two rows from the last, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta' &= \begin{vmatrix} b+c-a & 0 & a^2 \\ 0 & c+a-b & b^2 \\ c-a-b & c-a-b & (a+b)^2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} b+c-a & 0 & a^2 \\ 0 & c+a-b & b^2 \\ -2b & -2a & 2ab \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{ab} \begin{vmatrix} a(b+c-a) & 0 & a^2 \\ 0 & b(c+a-b) & b^2 \\ -2ab & -2ab & 2ab \end{vmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Adding the last column to each of the others, we obtain

$$\Delta' = \frac{1}{ab} \begin{vmatrix} a(b+c) & a^2 & a^2 \\ b^2 & b(c+a) & b^2 \\ 0 & 0 & 2ab \end{vmatrix} = 2 \begin{vmatrix} a(b+c) & a^2 \\ b^2 & b(c+a) \end{vmatrix} = 2ab \begin{vmatrix} b+c & a \\ b & c+a \end{vmatrix} = 2abc(a+b+c).$$

Hence, $\Delta = \Delta'(a+b+c)^2 = 2abc(a+b+c)^3$.

11. Prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ \alpha^3 & \beta^3 & \gamma^3 \end{vmatrix} = (\beta - \gamma)(\gamma - \alpha)(\alpha - \beta)(\alpha + \beta + \gamma).$$

Subtracting the first column from each of the others, $\beta - \alpha$ and $\gamma - \alpha$ become factors. In the reduced determinant, subtract the first row multiplied by α^2 from the second row.

12. Resolve into simple factors the determinant

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & \delta^2 \\ \alpha^4 & \beta^4 & \gamma^4 & \delta^4 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Proceeding, as in Ex. 11, we easily find that $(\beta - \alpha)(\gamma - \alpha)(\delta - \alpha)$ is a factor, and that the reduced determinant is

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \beta + \alpha & \gamma + \alpha & \delta + \alpha \\ \beta^3 + \beta^2\alpha + \beta\alpha^2 + \alpha^3 & \gamma^3 + \gamma^2\alpha + \gamma\alpha^2 + \alpha^3 & \delta^3 + \delta^2\alpha + \delta\alpha^2 + \alpha^3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Subtracting the first column from each of the others, $(\gamma - \beta)(\delta - \beta)$ comes out as a factor, and the remaining factor is easily found to be $(\delta - \gamma)(\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta)$. Hence, finally,

$$\Delta = -(\beta - \gamma)(\alpha - \delta)(\gamma - \alpha)(\beta - \delta)(\alpha - \beta)(\gamma - \delta)(\alpha + \beta + \gamma + \delta).$$

13. Resolve into linear factors the determinant

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ c & a & b \\ b & c & a \end{vmatrix}.$$

Multiply the second column by ω , and the third by ω^2 ; and add to the first. The factor $a + \omega b + \omega^2 c$ may then be taken off the first column (since $\omega^3 = 1$), leaving the constituents 1, ω , ω^2 . Adding then the second and third rows to the first, the factor $a + b + c$ may be taken out; and the remaining determinant is easily found to be equal to $a + \omega^2 b + \omega c$. Hence we have

$$\Delta = (a + b + c)(a + \omega b + \omega^2 c)(a + \omega^2 b + \omega c).$$

14. Resolve into linear factors the determinant

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ b & a & d & c \\ c & d & a & b \\ d & c & b & a \end{vmatrix}.$$

The result is as follows:—

$$\Delta = -(a + b + c + d)(b + c - a - d)(c + a - b - d)(a + b - c - d),$$

since each of the factors here written is a factor of the determinant; for example, $a + b - c - d$ is shown to be a factor by adding the second column to the first, and subtracting the third and fourth. By comparing the sign of a^4 , it appears that the negative sign must be attached to the product.

It may be observed that the determinant of Ex. 9 is a particular case of the determinant here considered, viz. that obtained by putting $a = 0$, as will appear by comparing the equivalent forms of Ex. 9, Art. 134.

141. Multiplication of Determinants.—PROP. VIII.—

The product of two determinants of any order is itself a determinant of the same order.

We shall prove this for two determinants of the third order. The student will observe, from the nature of the proof, that it is equally applicable in general. We propose to show that the product of the two determinants $(a_1b_2c_3)$, $(a_1\beta_2\gamma_3)$ is

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1a_1 + b_1\beta_1 + c_1\gamma_1 & a_1a_2 + b_1\beta_2 + c_1\gamma_2 & a_1a_3 + b_1\beta_3 + c_1\gamma_3 \\ a_2a_1 + b_2\beta_1 + c_2\gamma_1 & a_2a_2 + b_2\beta_2 + c_2\gamma_2 & a_2a_3 + b_2\beta_3 + c_2\gamma_3 \\ a_3a_1 + b_3\beta_1 + c_3\gamma_1 & a_3a_2 + b_3\beta_2 + c_3\gamma_2 & a_3a_3 + b_3\beta_3 + c_3\gamma_3 \end{vmatrix},$$

whose constituents are the sums of the products of the constituents in any row of $(a_1b_2c_3)$ by the corresponding constituents in any row of $(a_1\beta_2\gamma_3)$.

Since each column consists of the sum of three terms, this determinant can be expanded into the sum of twenty-seven others (Art. 138). Now it will be observed that when any one of these is written down, a common factor can be taken off each column; and that several of the partial determinants will, when these factors are removed, have two (or more) columns identical. The determinants which do not vanish in this way can be easily selected. Taking, for example, the first vertical line of the first

column, this would give a vanishing determinant if we were to take along with it the first line of the second column. We take then the second line of the second column; and along with these two we must take the third line of the third column to obtain a determinant which does not vanish. Retaining still the first line of the first column, we may take the third line of the second column along with the second line of the third column. Taking out the common factors of the columns, we write down these two determinants as follows:—

$$a_1\beta_2\gamma_3 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} + a_1\gamma_2\beta_3 \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & c_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & c_2 & b_2 \\ a_3 & c_3 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Taking in turn each of the other lines of the first column, we obtain four other determinants which do not vanish. Thus there are in all six terms; and it is plain that $(a_1b_2c_3)$ is a factor in each of these. Taking out this factor there remains the sum of six terms—

$$a_1\beta_2\gamma_3 - a_1\beta_3\gamma_2 - a_2\beta_1\gamma_3 + a_3\beta_1\gamma_2 + a_2\beta_3\gamma_1 - a_3\beta_2\gamma_1,$$

and this is the determinant $(a_1\beta_2\gamma_3)$. We have therefore proved that the determinant above written is the product of the two given determinants.

In either of the given determinants the rows may be written in place of columns; hence the product may be written in several different forms as a determinant; but these will, of course, give the same value when expanded.

142. Multiplication of Determinants continued.—

Another mode of proof of the proposition of the last Article, expressing as a determinant the product of two given determinants of the same order, may be derived from Laplace's mode of development already explained (Art. 135).

The nature of this proof will be sufficiently understood from the application which follows to two determinants of the third order.

The product of the two determinants $(a_1b_2c_3)$, $(a_1b_2\gamma_3)$ is (Ex. 3, Art. 135) plainly equal to the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & \beta_1 & \beta_2 & \beta_3 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 & \gamma_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

In this determinant add to the fourth column the sum of the first multiplied by a_1 , the second by β_1 , and the third by γ_1 ; add to the fifth column the sum of the first multiplied by a_2 , the second by β_2 , and the third by γ_2 ; and add to the sixth column the sum of the first multiplied by a_3 , the second by β_3 , and the third by γ_3 . The determinant becomes then

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & a_1a_1 + b_1\beta_1 + c_1\gamma_1 & a_1a_2 + b_1\beta_2 + c_1\gamma_2 & a_1a_3 + b_1\beta_3 + c_1\gamma_3 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & a_2a_1 + b_2\beta_1 + c_2\gamma_1 & a_2a_2 + b_2\beta_2 + c_2\gamma_2 & a_2a_3 + b_2\beta_3 + c_2\gamma_3 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & a_3a_1 + b_3\beta_1 + c_3\gamma_1 & a_3a_2 + b_3\beta_2 + c_3\gamma_2 & a_3a_3 + b_3\beta_3 + c_3\gamma_3 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

and this is, by Art. 135, equal to the product (with the proper sign) of the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \quad (\text{which is equal to } -1)$$

by the complementary minor, which is the same determinant as that obtained in the preceding Article. That the sign to be attached to the product is negative is easily seen by moving down the first three rows till the diagonals of the two minors in question form the diagonal of the determinant itself. The student will have no difficulty in observing that, in the general case, the number of such displacements is odd when the order of the given determinants is odd, and even when it is even; so that the sign to be placed before the product-determinant of Art. 141 is always positive.

The important proposition contained in this Article and the Article which precedes will be illustrated by the examples which follow.

EXAMPLES.

1. Show that the product of the two determinants

$$\begin{vmatrix} a + ib & c + id \\ -c + id & a - ib \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} a' - ib' & c' - id' \\ -c' - id' & a' + ib' \end{vmatrix},$$

where $i = \sqrt{-1}$, may be written in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} D - iC & B - iA \\ -B - iA & D + iC \end{vmatrix};$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} A &\equiv bc' - b'c + ad' - a'd, & B &\equiv ca' - c'a + bd' - b'd, \\ C &\equiv ab' - a'b + cd' - c'd, & D &\equiv ad' + b'b' + c'c + d'd; \end{aligned}$$

and hence prove Euler's theorem

$$\begin{aligned} (a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2)(a'^2 + b'^2 + c'^2 + d'^2) \\ \equiv (aa' + bb' + cc' + dd')^2 + (bc' - b'c + ad' - a'd)^2 \\ + (ca' - c'a + bd' - b'd)^2 + (ab' - a'b + cd' - c'd)^2, \end{aligned}$$

viz. the product of two sums each of four squares can be expressed as the sum of four squares.

2. Prove the following expression for the square of a determinant of the third order:—

$$2 \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \\ a'' & b'' & c'' \end{vmatrix}^2 = \begin{vmatrix} 2(ac - b^2) & ac' + a'c - 2bb' & ac'' + a''c - 2bb'' \\ ac' + a'c - 2bb' & 2(a'd - b')^2 & a'd'' + a''d' - 2b'b'' \\ ac'' + a''c - 2bb'' & a'd'' + a''d' - 2b'b'' & 2(a''c'' - b''^2) \end{vmatrix}.$$

This appears by multiplying the two determinants

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \\ a'' & b'' & c'' \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} c & -2b & a \\ c' & -2b' & a' \\ c'' & -2b'' & a'' \end{vmatrix},$$

which differ only by the factor 2.

3. Prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2bc - a^2 & c^2 & b^2 \\ c^2 & 2ca - b^2 & a^2 \\ b^2 & a^2 & 2ab - c^2 \end{vmatrix} \equiv (a^3 + b^3 + c^3 - 3abc)^2.$$

This may be readily proved by multiplying together the two equivalent determinants

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & c & a \\ c & a & b \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} -a & c & b \\ -b & a & c \\ -c & b & a \end{vmatrix}.$$

4. Prove, by squaring the determinant of Ex. 10, Art. 132, the following relation between the roots $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ of a biquadratic; s_0, s_1, s_2 , &c. having the same signification as in Chap. VIII., Vol. I. :—

$$\begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & s_2 & s_3 \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 & s_4 \\ s_2 & s_3 & s_4 & s_5 \\ s_3 & s_4 & s_5 & s_6 \end{vmatrix} = (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\alpha - \delta)^2 (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\beta - \delta)^2 (\alpha - \beta)^2 (\gamma - \delta)^2.$$

The student will find no difficulty in writing down for an equation of any degree the corresponding determinant (in terms of the sums of the powers of the roots) which is equal to the product of the squares of the differences.

5. Resolve into factors the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} s_6 & s_5 & s_4 & s_3 & x^3 \\ s_5 & s_4 & s_3 & s_2 & x^2 \\ s_4 & s_3 & s_2 & s_1 & x \\ s_3 & s_2 & s_1 & s_0 & 1 \\ y^3 & y^2 & y & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix},$$

in which s_0, s_1, s_2 , &c. are the sums of the powers of three quantities α, β, γ .

This determinant is the product of the two

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha^3 & \beta^3 & \gamma^3 & x^3 & 0 \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & x^2 & 0 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & x & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} \alpha^3 & \beta^3 & \gamma^3 & 0 & y^3 \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & 0 & y^2 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & 0 & y \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix};$$

and each of the latter can be readily resolved into simple factors.

6. Prove the result of Ex. 28, p. 57, Vol. I., by multiplying the two following determinants:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & y & z \\ z & x & y \\ y & z & x \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} x' & y' & z' \\ z' & x' & y' \\ y' & z' & x' \end{vmatrix}.$$

7. Show that two determinants of different orders may be multiplied together.

For their orders may be made equal; since the order of any determinant can be increased by adding any number of columns and the same number of rows consisting of units in the diagonal, and all the rest zero constituents. For example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \quad \text{may be written} \quad \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & 0 & a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix},$$

the only effect of the added constituents being to multiply the determinant by unity. More generally, one set of added constituents (*i.e.* those either to the right or the left of the diagonal) might be taken to be any quantities whatever, the remaining set being ciphers. Thus $(a_1 b_2)$ may be written in either of the forms

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ 0 & 1 & \delta & \epsilon \\ 0 & 0 & a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & 0 & a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \delta & a_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & \epsilon & a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix};$$

as readily appears by means of the expansion of Art. 134.

143. Rectangular Arrays.—Arrays in which the number of rows is not equal to the number of columns may be called *rectangular*. These do not themselves represent any definite function; but if two such arrays of the same dimensions are given, there can be derived from them by the process of Art. 141 a determinant whose value we proceed to investigate.

(1). *When the number of columns exceeds the number of rows.*

Take, for example, the two rectangular arrays,

$$\left. \begin{array}{cccc} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \end{array} \right\} (1), \quad \left. \begin{array}{cccc} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & \gamma_1 & \delta_1 \\ \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \gamma_2 & \delta_2 \end{array} \right\} (2);$$

and performing on these a process similar to that employed in multiplying two determinants, we obtain the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1a_1 + b_1\beta_1 + c_1\gamma_1 + d_1\delta_1 & a_1a_2 + b_1\beta_2 + c_1\gamma_2 + d_1\delta_2 \\ a_2a_1 + b_2\beta_1 + c_2\gamma_1 + d_2\delta_1 & a_2a_2 + b_2\beta_2 + c_2\gamma_2 + d_2\delta_2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The value of this is easily found to be

$$(a_1b_2)(a_1\beta_2) + (a_1c_2)(a_1\gamma_2) + (a_1d_2)(a_1\delta_2) + (b_1c_2)(\beta_1\gamma_2) \\ + (b_1d_2)(\beta_1\delta_2) + (c_1d_2)(\gamma_1\delta_2),$$

i.e. the sum of the products of all possible determinants which can be formed from one array (by taking a number of columns equal to the number of rows) multiplied by the corresponding determinants formed from the other array.

Another proof of this proposition, analogous to the treatment of multiplication of determinants in Art. 142, is given among the examples which follow this Article; and either of these proofs can be easily generalized.

(2). When the number of rows exceeds the number of columns, the resulting determinant vanishes.

Take, for example, the two arrays

$$\left. \begin{array}{cc} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 \end{array} \right\} (1), \quad \left. \begin{array}{cc} a_1 & \beta_1 \\ a_2 & \beta_2 \\ a_3 & \beta_3 \end{array} \right\} (2).$$

Performing the process of multiplication, we have

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1a_1 + b_1\beta_1 & a_1a_2 + b_1\beta_2 & a_1a_3 + b_1\beta_3 \\ a_2a_1 + b_2\beta_1 & a_2a_2 + b_2\beta_2 & a_2a_3 + b_2\beta_3 \\ a_3a_1 + b_3\beta_1 & a_3a_2 + b_3\beta_2 & a_3a_3 + b_3\beta_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

It will be observed that this determinant is the same as would arise if a column of ciphers were added to each of the given arrays, and the determinants so formed then multiplied. It follows that the determinant vanishes.

A similar proof applies in general. It is only necessary in any instance to add to each array columns of ciphers, so as to make the number of columns equal to the number of rows, and then multiply the two determinants.

EXAMPLES.

1. From the two arrays

$$\left. \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma \end{array} \right\} (1), \quad \left. \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma \end{array} \right\} (2),$$

prove

$$\left| \begin{array}{cc} 3 & \alpha + \beta + \gamma \\ \alpha + \beta + \gamma & \alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2 \end{array} \right| \equiv (\alpha - \beta)^2 + (\alpha - \gamma)^2 + (\beta - \gamma)^2.$$

2. From the two arrays

$$\left. \begin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \end{array} \right\} (1), \quad \left. \begin{array}{ccc} c & -2b & a \\ c' & -2b' & a' \end{array} \right\} (2),$$

prove

$$4(ac - b^2)(a'd' - b'^2) - (ad' + a'e - 2bb')^2 \equiv 4(bc' - b'c)(ab' - a'b) - (ad' - a'e)^2.$$

3. By squaring the array

$$\left. \begin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \end{array} \right\},$$

prove

$$(a^2 + b^2 + c^2)(a'^2 + b'^2 + c'^2) \equiv (aa' + bb' + cc')^2 + (bc' - b'c)^2 + (ca' - c'a)^2 + (ab' - a'b)^2.$$

4. Verify, by squaring the array

$$\left. \begin{array}{cccc} a & b & c & d \\ a' & b' & c' & d' \end{array} \right\},$$

the result of Ex. 1, Art. 142.

5. Prove the determinant identity

$$\left| \begin{array}{cccc} (a_1 - b_1)^2 & (a_1 - b_2)^2 & (a_1 - b_3)^2 & (a_1 - b_4)^2 \\ (a_2 - b_1)^2 & (a_2 - b_2)^2 & (a_2 - b_3)^2 & (a_2 - b_4)^2 \\ (a_3 - b_1)^2 & (a_3 - b_2)^2 & (a_3 - b_3)^2 & (a_3 - b_4)^2 \\ (a_4 - b_1)^2 & (a_4 - b_2)^2 & (a_4 - b_3)^2 & (a_4 - b_4)^2 \end{array} \right| \equiv 0.$$

This can be proved by multiplying the two arrays

$$\left. \begin{array}{ccc} a_1^2 & a_1 & 1 \\ a_2^2 & a_2 & 1 \\ a_3^2 & a_3 & 1 \\ a_4^2 & a_4 & 1 \end{array} \right\} (1), \quad \left. \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & -2b_1 & b_1^2 \\ 1 & -2b_2 & b_2^2 \\ 1 & -2b_3 & b_3^2 \\ 1 & -2b_4 & b_4^2 \end{array} \right\} (2).$$

6. For the general equation of the n^{th} degree, whose roots are $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$, &c., and s_0, s_1, s_2 , &c. the sums of the powers of the roots, prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 \\ s_1 & s_2 \end{vmatrix} = \Sigma (\alpha - \beta)^2.$$

This appears at once by squaring the array

$$\left. \begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & . \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta & \epsilon & . \end{array} \right\}.$$

7. Prove similarly, for the general equation,

$$\begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & s_2 \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 \\ s_2 & s_3 & s_4 \end{vmatrix} = \Sigma (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\alpha - \beta)^2.$$

This is easily proved, as in the preceding example, by squaring a suitable array; and the same process can be used to establish a series of relations of this kind. When the number of rows in the array becomes equal to the degree of the equation, the value of the determinant is the product of the squares of the differences of the roots, as in Ex. 4, Art. 142. When the number of rows exceeds the degree of the equation, the value of the corresponding determinant is zero. The determinant of the fourth order just referred to, for example, vanishes for equations of the second and third degrees.

8. Prove, for the general equation,

$$\begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & s_2 & s_3 \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 & s_4 \\ s_2 & s_3 & s_4 & s_5 \\ 1 & x & x^2 & x^3 \end{vmatrix} = \Sigma (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\alpha - \beta)^2 (x - \alpha) (x - \beta) (x - \gamma).$$

Multiplying the two arrays

$$\left. \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & . \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & . \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & . \end{array} \right\}, \quad \left. \begin{array}{ccc} x - \alpha & x - \beta & x - \gamma \\ \alpha(x - \alpha) & \beta(x - \beta) & \gamma(x - \gamma) \\ \alpha^2(x - \alpha) & \beta^2(x - \beta) & \gamma^2(x - \gamma) \end{array} \right\},$$

we show that Σ is equal to

$$\begin{vmatrix} s_0x - s_1 & s_1x - s_2 & s_2x - s_3 \\ s_1x - s_2 & s_2x - s_3 & s_3x - s_4 \\ s_2x - s_3 & s_3x - s_4 & s_4x - s_5 \end{vmatrix},$$

which is easily transformed into the proposed determinant.

It appears in like manner, in general, that the determinant of similar form of order $p + 1$ is equal to the corresponding symmetric function, each of whose terms contains p factors of the original equation, multiplied by the product of the squared differences of the p roots therein contained.

9. Find the value of the following determinant, and hence derive another proof of the property of arrays of the first kind—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 & 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & \beta_1 & \beta_2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & \delta_1 & \delta_2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Expanding this by Laplace's method, we readily find its value to be the six products, $\Sigma (a_1 b_2) (a_1 \beta_2)$, of p. 34; and treating the determinant as in Art. 142, viz. adding to the fifth column the sum of the first multiplied by a_1 , the second by β_1 , &c., we reduce it to the determinant of the second order at the top of p. 34.

144. Solution of a System of Linear Equations.—

We have seen in Art. 134 that a determinant may be expanded as a linear homogeneous function of the constituents in any row or column, the coefficient of any constituent being the corresponding minor with its proper sign. We have, for example,

$$\Delta = a_1 A_1 + a_2 A_2 + a_3 A_3 + \&c.$$

Now, the coefficients $A_1, A_2, \&c.$, are connected with the constituents of the other columns by $n - 1$ identical relations, viz.

$$b_1 A_1 + b_2 A_2 + b_3 A_3 + \&c. = 0,$$

$$c_1 A_1 + c_2 A_2 + c_3 A_3 + \&c. = 0, \&c.;$$

for any one of these is what the determinant becomes when the constituents of the corresponding column are substituted for $a_1, a_2, a_3, \&c.$, and must therefore vanish.

By the aid of these relations, we can write down the solution of a system of linear equations. The following application to the case of three unknown quantities x, y, z , is sufficient to explain the general process. Let the equations be

$$a_1 x + b_1 y + c_1 z = m_1,$$

$$a_2 x + b_2 y + c_2 z = m_2,$$

$$a_3 x + b_3 y + c_3 z = m_3.$$

Multiply the first equation by A_1 , the second by A_2 , and the third by A_3 ; and add. The coefficients of y and z vanish, in virtue of the relations above proved, and we obtain

$$(a_1A_1 + a_2A_2 + a_3A_3)x = m_1A_1 + m_2A_2 + m_3A_3,$$

or

$$\Delta x = \begin{vmatrix} m_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ m_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ m_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix},$$

where Δ represents the determinant formed from the nine constituents a_1, b_1, c_1 , &c.

Similarly, multiplying by B_1, B_2, B_3 , we obtain

$$(b_1B_1 + b_2B_2 + b_3B_3)y = m_1B_1 + m_2B_2 + m_3B_3,$$

$$\Delta y = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & m_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & m_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & m_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix},$$

where the determinant on the right-hand side is what Δ becomes when m_1, m_2, m_3 are substituted for the constituents of the second column. Similarly, we obtain for z

$$\Delta z = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & m_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & m_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & m_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

These values may be written more compactly as follows:—

$$\Delta x = (m_1b_2c_3), \quad \Delta y = (a_1m_2c_3), \quad \Delta z = (a_1b_2m_3).$$

In general, the values of x, y, z , &c., may be written as follows:—

$$x = \frac{(m_1b_2c_3 \dots l_n)}{(a_1b_2c_3 \dots l_n)}, \quad y = \frac{(a_1m_2b_3 \dots l_n)}{(a_1b_2c_3 \dots l_n)}, \quad z = \frac{(a_1b_2m_3 \dots l_n)}{(a_1b_2c_3 \dots l_n)}, \quad \&c.$$

where, to obtain the value of any unknown, the known quantities m_1, m_2 , &c., on the right-hand side of the given equations are to be substituted in Δ for the coefficients of the required unknown, and the determinant so formed to be divided by Δ .

EXAMPLES.

1. Solve the equations

$$\begin{aligned}x + y + z &= A_0, \\ \alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z &= A_1, \\ \alpha^2 x + \beta^2 y + \gamma^2 z &= A_2.\end{aligned}$$

The solution is easily effected by the formulæ given above. It can be shown that the value of any one of the unknown quantities can be expressed as a quadratic function of its coefficient in these equations, along with *symmetric functions* of α, β, γ (in addition to the given coefficients A_0, A_1, A_2). For this purpose we write the value of the unknown (say, y) in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & y \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & A_0 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & A_1 \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & A_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0, \quad (1)$$

which may be derived immediately by joining the identical equation $y = y$ to the three given equations, and eliminating after the manner of the Article which follows. Now

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & y \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & A_0 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & A_1 \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & A_2 \end{vmatrix} \times \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & 0 \\ \alpha^2 & \beta^2 & \gamma^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \beta & \beta^2 & y \\ s_0 & s_1 & s_2 & A_0 \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 & A_1 \\ s_2 & s_3 & s_4 & A_2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

If therefore (assuming that α, β, γ are all unequal), we multiply the equation (1) by the difference-product, we have y expressed as a quadratic function of β along with the sums of the powers of the three quantities α, β, γ .

2. Show, by means of the equations of Art. 77, Vol. I., that the sums of the powers can be expressed in terms of the coefficients, or *vice versa*, in the form of determinants, as follows:—

$$\begin{aligned} s_2 &= \begin{vmatrix} p_1 & 1 \\ 2p_2 & p_1 \end{vmatrix}, \quad s_3 = - \begin{vmatrix} p_1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2p_2 & p_1 & 1 \\ 3p_3 & p_2 & p_1 \end{vmatrix}, \quad s_4 = \begin{vmatrix} p_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2p_2 & p_1 & 1 & 0 \\ 3p_3 & p_2 & p_1 & 1 \\ 4p_4 & p_3 & p_2 & p_1 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \&c. \\ 2p_2 &= \begin{vmatrix} s_1 & 1 \\ s_2 & s_1 \end{vmatrix}, \quad 6p_3 = - \begin{vmatrix} s_1 & 1 & 0 \\ s_2 & s_1 & 2 \\ s_3 & s_2 & s_1 \end{vmatrix}, \quad 24p_4 = \begin{vmatrix} s_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ s_2 & s_1 & 2 & 0 \\ s_3 & s_2 & s_1 & 3 \\ s_4 & s_3 & s_2 & s_1 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \&c. \end{aligned}$$

145. **Linear Homogeneous Equations.**—When $n - 1$ linear homogeneous equations between n variables are given, the ratios of the variables can be determined by bringing any one of them to the right-hand side of the equations, and solving as in the previous Article; or we may determine these ratios more conveniently as follows. We take the particular case of three equations between four quantities x, y, z, w , which will be sufficient to illustrate the general process:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a_1x + b_1y + c_1z + d_1w &= 0 \\ a_2x + b_2y + c_2z + d_2w &= 0 \\ a_3x + b_3y + c_3z + d_3w &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\}. \quad (1)$$

To these may be added a fourth equation whose coefficients are undetermined, viz.

$$a_4x + b_4y + c_4z + d_4w = \lambda. \quad (2)$$

Calling $(a_1b_2c_3d_4)$ as usual Δ , and solving from these four equations by the method of the last Article, we obtain, since $m_1 = 0, m_2 = 0, m_3 = 0, m_4 = \lambda$, the following values:—

$$\Delta x = \lambda A_4, \quad \Delta y = \lambda B_4, \quad \Delta z = \lambda C_4, \quad \Delta w = \lambda D_4,$$

or

$$\frac{x}{A_4} = \frac{y}{B_4} = \frac{z}{C_4} = \frac{w}{D_4} = \frac{\lambda}{\Delta}. \quad (3)$$

The first three of these equations express the ratios of x, y, z, w in terms of the coefficients in the three given equations. And, in general, *the variables are proportional to the coefficients in the expansion of Δ of the constituents of the n^{th} row supposed added to the $n - 1$ rows resulting from the given equations.*

We can now express the condition that n linear homogeneous equations should be consistent with one another; for example, that the equation (2) should, when $\lambda = 0$, be consistent with the equations (1). We have only to substitute in (2) the ratios derived from (1), when we obtain

$$a_4A_4 + b_4B_4 + c_4C_4 + d_4D_4 = 0,$$

or

$$\Delta = 0.$$

The same thing appears from the equations (3); for if $\lambda = 0$, and if x, y, z, w do not all vanish, Δ must vanish.

What has been proved may be expressed as follows:—*The result of eliminating n quantities between n equations linear and homogeneous in these quantities is the vanishing of the determinant formed by the coefficients of the given equations.*

146. Reciprocal Determinants. — The co-factors $A_1, B_1, C_1 \dots A_2, B_2, \&c.$ (Art. 134), which occur in the expansion of a determinant (*i.e.* the first minors with their proper signs), may be called *inverse constituents*; and the determinant formed with them the *inverse or reciprocal determinant*. We proceed to prove certain useful relations connecting the two determinants.

(1). *To express the reciprocal in terms of the given determinant.* Let the reciprocal of Δ be denoted by Δ' , and multiply the two determinants

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \Delta' = \begin{vmatrix} A_1 & B_1 & C_1 \\ A_2 & B_2 & C_2 \\ A_3 & B_3 & C_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

All the constituents of the resulting determinant except those in the diagonal vanish (Art. 144); and the result is

$$\Delta \Delta' = \begin{vmatrix} \Delta & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \Delta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \Delta \end{vmatrix} = \Delta^3;$$

whence

$$\Delta' = \Delta^2.$$

The process here employed in the particular case of two determinants of the third order is equally applicable in general; giving $\Delta \Delta' = \Delta^n$, or $\Delta' = \Delta^{n-1}$. Hence *the reciprocal determinant is equal to the $(n - 1)^{th}$ power of the given determinant.*

(2). To express any minor of the reciprocal determinant in terms of the original constituents.

We take, for example, the determinant of the fourth order, and proceed to express the first minors of its reciprocal. Multiplying the two determinants on the left-hand side of the following equation, and employing the identical equations of Art. 144, we obtain

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ A_2 & B_2 & C_2 & D_2 \\ A_3 & B_3 & C_3 & D_3 \\ A_4 & B_4 & C_4 & D_4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & \Delta & 0 & 0 \\ a_3 & 0 & \Delta & 0 \\ a_4 & 0 & 0 & \Delta \end{vmatrix};$$

whence

$$\Delta \begin{vmatrix} B_2 & C_2 & D_2 \\ B_3 & C_3 & D_3 \\ B_4 & C_4 & D_4 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 \Delta^3;$$

or

$$(B_2 C_3 D_4) = a_1 \Delta^2,$$

thus expressing the first minor of Δ' complementary to A_1 .

Again, to express the second minors of Δ' , we have, by an exactly similar process,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ A_3 & B_3 & C_3 & D_3 \\ A_4 & B_4 & C_4 & D_4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & 0 & 0 \\ a_2 & b_2 & 0 & 0 \\ a_3 & b_3 & \Delta & 0 \\ a_4 & b_4 & 0 & \Delta \end{vmatrix};$$

whence

$$\Delta \begin{vmatrix} C_3 & D_3 \\ C_4 & D_4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 \end{vmatrix} \Delta^2,$$

or

$$(C_3 D_4) = (a_1 b_2) \Delta.$$

The general theorem may be expressed as follows:—A minor of the order m formed out of the inverse constituents is equal to the complementary of the corresponding minor of the original determinant Δ multiplied by the $(m-1)^{\text{th}}$ power of Δ .

The method of proof above given can be generalized. In the case of a determinant of the fifth order, for example, the student will easily verify the following expression for a minor of the third order :—

$$(C_3D_4E_5) = (a_1b_2)\Delta^2.$$

If the original determinant Δ vanishes, it is plain that not only the reciprocal determinant itself, but also all its minors of any order vanish. The vanishing of the minors of the second order may be expressed in the following useful form :—*When a determinant vanishes, the constituents of any row of its reciprocal are proportional to those of any other row, and the constituents of any column to those of any other column.*

147. Symmetrical Determinants.—Two constituents of a determinant are said to be *conjugate* when one occupies with reference to the leading constituent the same position in the rows as the other does in the columns. For example, d_2 and b_4 are conjugates, one occupying the fourth place in the second row, and the other the fourth place in the second column. Each of the leading constituents is its own conjugate. Any two conjugate constituents are situated in a line perpendicular to the principal diagonal, and at equal distances from it on opposite sides.

A *symmetrical* determinant is one in which every two conjugate constituents are equal to each other. For examples of such determinants the student may refer to Art. 134, Exs. 2, 9, 10, and Art. 135, Ex. 4.

In a symmetrical determinant the first minors complementary to any two conjugate constituents are equal, since they differ only by an interchange of rows and columns. The corresponding inverse constituents are also equal, the signs to be attached to the minors being the same in both cases. It follows that the *reciprocal of a symmetrical determinant is itself symmetrical.*

The leading minors are all symmetrical determinants.

The mode of expansion of Art. 137 is especially useful in the case of symmetrical determinants, as will appear from the examples which follow.

EXAMPLES.

1. Form the reciprocal of the symmetrical determinant

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{vmatrix}.$$

Using the capital letters to denote the reciprocal constituents as explained in Art. 134, so that Δ may be expanded in any one of the forms $aA + hH + gG$, $hH + bB + fF$, $gG + fF + cC$, we may write the reciprocal determinant Δ' as follows:—

$$\Delta' \equiv \begin{vmatrix} A & H & G \\ H & B & F \\ G & F & C \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} bc - f^2 & fg - ch & hf - bg \\ fg - ch & ca - g^2 & gh - af \\ hf - bg & gh - af & ab - h^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

2. Form similarly the reciprocal of

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g & l \\ h & b & f & m \\ g & f & c & n \\ l & m & n & d \end{vmatrix}.$$

Using a notation similar to that of the preceding example, so that Δ may be expanded indifferently in any of the forms

$$aA + hH + gG + lL, \quad hH + bB + fF + mM, \text{ \&c.},$$

the reciprocal determinant Δ' is obtained by replacing in Δ the constituents by the corresponding capital letters. The student will find no difficulty in writing out, if necessary, the expanded form of any of the reciprocal constituents; for example, F is the minor complementary to f with its proper sign (the negative sign in this case), and F is therefore obtained from the expansion of

$$- \begin{vmatrix} a & h & l \\ g & f & n \\ l & m & d \end{vmatrix}.$$

3. Expand the determinant Δ of Ex. 10, Art. 134, by the method of Art. 137. Bringing the last row and last column into the positions of first row and first

column, and using the notation of Ex. 1 for the inverse constituents of the leading minor, the result can be written down at once in the form

$$-\Delta = A\lambda^2 + B\mu^2 + C\nu^2 + 2F\mu\nu + 2G\nu\lambda + 2H\lambda\mu.$$

Since a determinant is unaltered when both rows and columns are written in reverse order, if the expansion of a determinant be required in terms of the last row and last column (as in the present example), it is not necessary to move them in the first instance into the positions of first row and first column. The expansion can be written down from the determinant as it stands, replacing in the rule of Art. 137 the leading constituent and its minor by the last diagonal constituent and its complementary minor.

4. Expand the determinant Δ of the above Ex. 2, in terms of the last row and column, by the method of Art. 137.

Attending to the remark at the end of the preceding example, and using A, B, C, F, G, H to represent the same quantities as in Exs. 1 and 3, the result may be written down as follows:—

$$\Delta = d \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{vmatrix} - Al^2 - Bm^2 - Cn^2 - 2Fmn - 2Gnl - 2Hlm.$$

When a symmetrical determinant of any order is bordered symmetrically (*i.e.* by the same constituents horizontally and vertically), the result is clearly a symmetrical determinant of the next higher order. The result of Art. 137 shows in general that the expansion of the bordered determinant consists of the original determinant multiplied by the constituent common to the added row and column, together with a homogeneous function of the second degree of the remaining added constituents.

5. Expand the determinant

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g & l & \alpha \\ h & b & f & m & \beta \\ g & f & c & n & \gamma \\ l & m & n & d & \delta \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

This is the determinant of Ex. 2, bordered symmetrically, the common constituent of the added lines being zero. The result is clearly a homogeneous function of the second degree of $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$; and, by aid of the notation of Ex. 2, the value of $-\Delta$ may be written down at once in the form

$$A\alpha^2 + B\beta^2 + C\gamma^2 + D\delta^2 + 2F\beta\gamma + 2G\gamma\alpha + 2H\alpha\beta + 2L\alpha\delta + 2M\beta\delta + 2N\gamma\delta.$$

6. Prove, by means of the Proposition of Art. 141, that the square of any determinant is a symmetrical determinant.

7. The product of two reciprocal determinants is the reciprocal determinant of the product of the two original determinants.

148. Skew-Symmetric and Skew Determinants.—

A *skew-symmetric* determinant is one in which every constituent is equal to its conjugate with sign changed. Since each leading constituent is its own conjugate, it follows that in such a determinant all the leading diagonal constituents are zero.

A determinant in which all except the leading constituents are equal to their conjugates with sign changed is called a *skew* determinant. Thus, while a skew-symmetric determinant is zero-axial, in a skew determinant diagonal constituents are present. The calculation of the latter kind may be reduced to that of the former by the method of Art. 136.

The remainder of this article will be occupied with the proof of certain useful properties of skew-symmetric determinants.

(1). *A skew-symmetric determinant of odd order vanishes.*

For any skew-symmetric determinant Δ is unaltered by changing the columns into rows, and then changing the signs of all the rows. But when the order of the determinant is odd, this process ought to change the sign of Δ ; hence Δ must in this case vanish. For example,

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & a & b \\ -a & 0 & c \\ -b & -c & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

(2). *The reciprocal of a skew-symmetric determinant of the n^{th} order is a symmetric determinant when n is odd, and a skew-symmetric determinant when n is even.*

In any skew-symmetric determinant the minors corresponding to a pair of conjugate constituents differ by an interchange of rows and columns, and by the signs of all the constituents. Hence the two minors are equal when their order is even, namely when n is odd; and equal with opposite signs when n is even. In the former case, therefore, the reciprocal determinant is symmetric; and in the latter case it is skew-symmetric, its leading diagonal constituents being all skew-symmetric determinants of odd order.

(3). *A skew-symmetric determinant of even order is a perfect square.*

This follows from the principles established in Art. 146.

Take, for example, the determinant of the fourth order

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 0 & a & b & c \\ -a & 0 & d & e \\ -b & -d & 0 & f \\ -c & -e & -f & 0 \end{vmatrix};$$

and let the inverse constituents forming its reciprocal be denoted by $A_1, B_1, \dots A_2, \&c.$ We have then, by (2), Art. 146,

$$A_1 B_2 - A_2 B_1 = \Delta \begin{vmatrix} 0 & f \\ -f & 0 \end{vmatrix} = f^2 \Delta.$$

Now A_1 and B_2 being skew-symmetric determinants of odd order, vanish; and $A_2 = -B_1$, since these are conjugate minors; hence $f^2 \Delta = A_2^2$, which proves that Δ is a perfect square. Similarly, for a determinant Δ of the sixth order, it is proved that the product of Δ by a skew-symmetric determinant of the fourth order is a perfect square; and since the latter determinant has been just proved to be a perfect square, it follows that Δ is so also. By an exactly similar process, the truth of the proposition having been established for the determinant of the sixth order, it may be proved for one of the eighth; and so on.

EXAMPLES.

1. Verify the following expression for the skew-symmetric determinant of the fourth order:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & a & b & c \\ -a & 0 & d & e \\ -b & -d & 0 & f \\ -c & -e & -f & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv (af - be + cd)^2.$$

2. Expand in powers of x the skew determinant

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} x & a & b & c \\ -a & x & d & e \\ -b & -d & x & f \\ -c & -e & -f & x \end{vmatrix}.$$

When the expansion of Art. 136 is employed to calculate a skew determinant, it is to be observed that the determinants of odd order in the expansion all vanish, and those of even order may be expressed as squares. Here the coefficients of the odd powers of x plainly vanish; and the result takes the form

$$\Delta \equiv x^4 + (a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 + e^2 + f^2)x^2 + (af - be + cd)^2.$$

3. Expand the skew determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} A & a & b & c & d \\ -a & B & e & f & g \\ -b & -e & C & h & i \\ -c & -f & -h & D & j \\ -d & -g & -i & -j & E \end{vmatrix}.$$

The result may be written in the form

$$ABCDE + \Sigma j^2 ABC + \Sigma (ej - fi + gh)^2 A,$$

where the first Σ includes ten terms similar to the one here written, and the second Σ five terms. The terms involving the products in pairs of the leading constituents vanish, as also the term not involving these quantities.

4. The square of any determinant of even order can be expressed as a skew-symmetric determinant.

The following method of proof is applicable in general.

The square of $(a_1 b_2 c_3 d_4)$ is obtained by multiplying the two following determinants:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} -b_1 & a_1 & -d_1 & c_1 \\ -b_2 & a_2 & -d_2 & c_2 \\ -b_3 & a_3 & -d_3 & c_3 \\ -b_4 & a_4 & -d_4 & c_4 \end{vmatrix};$$

and the product of these is

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0, & -(a_1b_2) - (c_1d_2), & -(a_1b_3) - (c_1d_3), & -(a_1b_4) - (c_1d_4), \\ (a_1b_2) + (c_1d_2), & 0, & -(a_2b_3) - (c_2d_3), & -(a_2b_4) - (c_2d_4), \\ (a_1b_3) + (c_1d_3), & (a_2b_3) + (c_2d_3), & 0, & -(a_3b_4) - (c_3d_4), \\ (a_1b_4) + (c_1d_4), & (a_2b_4) + (c_2d_4), & (a_3b_4) + (c_3d_4), & 0, \end{vmatrix},$$

which is a skew-symmetric determinant.

5. Form the reciprocal of a skew-symmetric determinant of the third order.

Using for Δ the form in (1) of the present Article, the result is easily found to be the symmetric determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a^2 & -bc & ac \\ -bc & b^2 & -ab \\ ac & -ab & a^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

6. Form the reciprocal of the skew-symmetric determinant Δ of the fourth order in Ex. 1.

Representing by ϕ the function $af - be + cd$ whose square is equal to Δ , and by Δ' the required reciprocal, we easily find

$$\Delta' = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & f\phi & -e\phi & d\phi \\ -f\phi & & c\phi & -b\phi \\ e\phi & -c\phi & 0 & a\phi \\ -d\phi & b\phi & -a\phi & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The value of this skew-symmetric determinant may be written down by aid of the result of Ex. 1. It is thus immediately verified that $\Delta' = (af - be + cd)^2 \phi^4 = \Delta^3$.

7. Form the reciprocal of the skew-symmetric determinant Δ of the fifth order obtained by making the leading coefficients all vanish in the determinant of Ex. 3.

Since the reciprocal is a symmetric determinant (see (2), Art. 148), and since also it must be such that the constituents of any line are proportional to those of any parallel line (Art. 146), it appears that the required determinant must be of the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} \phi_1^2 & \phi_1\phi_2 & \phi_1\phi_3 & \phi_1\phi_4 & \phi_1\phi_5 \\ \phi_2\phi_1 & \phi_2^2 & \phi_2\phi_3 & \phi_2\phi_4 & \phi_2\phi_5 \\ \phi_3\phi_1 & \phi_3\phi_2 & \phi_3^2 & \phi_3\phi_4 & \phi_3\phi_5 \\ \phi_4\phi_1 & \phi_4\phi_2 & \phi_4\phi_3 & \phi_4^2 & \phi_4\phi_5 \\ \phi_5\phi_1 & \phi_5\phi_2 & \phi_5\phi_3 & \phi_5\phi_4 & \phi_5^2 \end{vmatrix},$$

in which $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \phi_4, \phi_5$ are five functions of the second degree in the original constituents whose squares are the values of the five first minors complementary to the leading constituents of Δ .

In general the reciprocal of a skew-symmetric determinant of any odd order $2m + 1$ is of a form similar to that just written, the diagonal constituents being the squares, and the remaining constituents the products in pairs, of $2m + 1$ functions, each of the m^{th} degree in the original constituents.

149. Theorem.—We conclude the present chapter with an important theorem relating to a determinant whose leading first minor vanishes. Adopting the notation of Art. 137, we regard Δ as the vanishing determinant, and state the theorem to be proved as follows:—*If a determinant Δ , whose value is zero, be bordered in any manner, the product of the determinant so formed by the leading first minor of Δ is equal to the product of two linear homogeneous functions of the added constituents.*

Retaining the notation of Art. 137, we shall prove that the product of Δ' and A_1 may be expressed in the form:—

$$A_1\Delta' = -(A_1a + B_1\beta + C_1\gamma + \dots)(A_1a' + A_2\beta' + A_3\gamma' + \dots).$$

This follows at once from (2) of Art. 146 by considering in the determinant reciprocal to Δ' the values of the constituents inverse to a_0, a, a', a_1 ; and expressing in terms of the original constituents the determinant of the second order formed by these four. Another proof of this result may be readily derived from the expansion of Art. 137, by the aid of the property of the reciprocal of a vanishing determinant (Art. 146), viz. that in the determinant formed by A_1, B_1, C_1 , &c., the constituents in any line are proportional to those in any parallel line.

If the determinant Δ is symmetrical, and the bordering also symmetrical, the two factors on the right-hand side of the above equation become identical, and the theorem takes the following form:—*If a symmetrical determinant, whose value is zero, be bordered symmetrically, the product of the determinant so formed by its leading second minor is equal to the square with negative sign of a linear homogeneous function of the bordering constituents.*

Regarding Δ' as the original determinant, the following useful statement may be given to the theorem just proved:—*If in any symmetrical determinant the leading first minor vanish, the determinant itself and its leading second minor have opposite signs.*

EXAMPLES.

1. If a skew-symmetric determinant Δ of odd order $2m + 1$ be bordered in any manner, the resulting determinant Δ' is equal to the product of two rational functions each containing the added constituents in the first degree and the original constituents in the m^{th} degree.

Writing, according to the result of Ex. 7, Art. 148, the reciprocal of the given skew-symmetric determinant in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} \phi_1^2 & \phi_1\phi_2 & \phi_1\phi_3 & . \\ \phi_2\phi_1 & \phi_2^2 & \phi_2\phi_3 & . \\ . & . & . & . \end{vmatrix},$$

and applying the theorem of the present Article, we find

$$\phi_1^2\Delta' = -(\phi_1^2\alpha + \phi_1\phi_2\beta + \phi_1\phi_3\gamma + \dots)(\phi_1^2\alpha' + \phi_2\phi_1\beta' + \phi_3\phi_1\gamma' + \dots),$$

$$\text{or } \Delta' = -\frac{1}{\phi_1^2}(\phi_1\alpha + \phi_2\beta + \phi_3\gamma + \dots)(\phi_1\alpha' + \phi_2\beta' + \phi_3\gamma' + \dots).$$

It may be observed that if in this result α' , β' , γ' , &c., be made equal to $-\alpha$, $-\beta$, $-\gamma$, &c., respectively, we fall back on the theorem (3) of Art. 148.

2. If a skew-symmetric determinant of even order $2m$ be bordered in any manner, the resulting determinant is equal to the product of two rational functions, one of the m^{th} , and the other of the $(m + 1)^{\text{th}}$ degree in the constituents.

This may be derived immediately from the last example by making therein all the added constituents in the first column, viz., α' , β' , γ' , &c., equal to zero, except the last, which is to be made $= 1$. The determinant then reduces to one of the kind here considered, the bordering constituents forming the top row and the last column. It appears also that the factor of the m^{th} degree in the result is the square root of the given skew-symmetric determinant of order $2m$.

3. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ \alpha' & 0 & c & -b \\ \beta' & -c & 0 & a \\ \gamma' & b & -a & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv -(a\alpha + b\beta + c\gamma)(a\alpha' + b\beta' + c\gamma').$$

4. Resolve into its factors

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta \\ \alpha' & 0 & c & -b & x \\ \beta' & -c & 0 & a & y \\ \gamma' & b & -a & 0 & z \\ \delta' & -x & -y & -z & 0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Ans. } (ax + by + cz) \{x(\beta\gamma') + y(\gamma\alpha') + z(a\beta') + a(\alpha\delta') + b(\beta\delta') + c(\gamma\delta')\}.$$

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.

1. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \end{vmatrix} \equiv J,$$

where J has the usual signification.

2. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} \beta + \gamma & \gamma + \alpha & \alpha + \beta \\ \beta' + \gamma' & \gamma' + \alpha' & \alpha' + \beta' \\ \beta'' + \gamma'' & \gamma'' + \alpha'' & \alpha'' + \beta'' \end{vmatrix} \equiv 2 \begin{vmatrix} \alpha & \beta & \gamma \\ \alpha' & \beta' & \gamma' \\ \alpha'' & \beta'' & \gamma'' \end{vmatrix}.$$

3. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} \beta\gamma & \beta\gamma' + \beta'\gamma & \beta'\gamma' \\ \gamma\alpha & \gamma\alpha' + \gamma'\alpha & \gamma'\alpha' \\ \alpha\beta & \alpha\beta' + \alpha'\beta & \alpha'\beta' \end{vmatrix} \equiv (\beta\gamma') (\gamma\alpha') (\alpha\beta'),$$

where the factors on the right-hand side are determinants of the second order.

Dividing the rows by $\beta'\gamma'$, $\gamma'\alpha'$, $\alpha'\beta'$; and putting $\lambda = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha'}$, $\mu = \frac{\beta}{\beta'}$, $\nu = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma'}$, the determinant (omitting a factor) reduces to the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \mu + \nu & \mu\nu \\ 1 & \nu + \lambda & \nu\lambda \\ 1 & \lambda + \mu & \lambda\mu \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -\lambda & \mu\nu \\ 1 & -\mu & \nu\lambda \\ 1 & -\nu & \lambda\mu \end{vmatrix} \equiv -(\mu - \nu)(\nu - \lambda)(\lambda - \mu), \text{ \&c.}$$

4. Find the value of the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \beta + \gamma + \delta & \beta\gamma + \beta\delta + \gamma\delta & \beta\gamma\delta \\ 1 & \alpha + \gamma + \delta & \alpha\gamma + \alpha\delta + \gamma\delta & \alpha\gamma\delta \\ 1 & \alpha + \beta + \delta & \alpha\beta + \alpha\delta + \beta\delta & \alpha\beta\delta \\ 1 & \alpha + \beta + \gamma & \alpha\beta + \alpha\gamma + \beta\gamma & \alpha\beta\gamma \end{vmatrix}.$$

Since the interchange of two letters would make two rows identical, this can differ by a numerical factor only from the product of the six differences. Or we may reduce the determinant easily to the form in Ex. 10, Art. 132. The value of a similar determinant of any order can be found in the same way; and the sign can be determined in any instance by the method of Ex. 9, Art. 132.

5. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} \beta^2\gamma^2 + \alpha^2\delta^2 & \beta\gamma + \alpha\delta & 1 \\ \gamma^2\alpha^2 + \beta^2\delta^2 & \gamma\alpha + \beta\delta & 1 \\ \alpha^2\beta^2 + \gamma^2\delta^2 & \alpha\beta + \gamma\delta & 1 \end{vmatrix} \equiv (\beta - \gamma)(\alpha - \delta)(\gamma - \alpha)(\beta - \delta)(\alpha - \beta)(\gamma - \delta).$$

Add the last column multiplied by $2\alpha\beta\gamma\delta$ to the first. The determinant becomes then of the form of Ex. 9, Art. 132.

6. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} (\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta)^4 & (\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta)^2 & 1 \\ (\gamma + \alpha - \beta - \delta)^4 & (\gamma + \alpha - \beta - \delta)^2 & 1 \\ (\alpha + \beta - \gamma - \delta)^4 & (\alpha + \beta - \gamma - \delta)^2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \equiv 64(\beta - \gamma)(\alpha - \delta)(\gamma - \alpha)(\beta - \delta)(\alpha - \beta)(\gamma - \delta).$$

7. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & ax + b \\ b & c & bx + c \\ ax + b & bx + c & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv -(ac - b^2)(ax^2 + 2bx + c).$$

Subtract from the third row the second row plus the first multiplied by x .

8. Prove similarly

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c & ax^2 + 2bx + c \\ b & c & d & bx^2 + 2cx + d \\ c & d & e & cx^2 + 2dx + e \\ ax^2 + 2bx + c & bx^2 + 2cx + d & cx^2 + 2dx + e & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv - \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & c & d \\ c & d & e \end{vmatrix} (ax^4 + 4bx^3 + 6cx^2 + 4dx + e).$$

9. Given

$$f_1(x) = a_1x^3 + 3b_1x^2 + 3c_1x + d_1,$$

$$f_2(x) = a_2x^3 + 3b_2x^2 + 3c_2x + d_2,$$

$$f_3(x) = a_3x^3 + 3b_3x^2 + 3c_3x + d_3;$$

prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} f_1(x) & f_1'(x) & f_1''(x) \\ f_2(x) & f_2'(x) & f_2''(x) \\ f_3(x) & f_3'(x) & f_3''(x) \end{vmatrix} \equiv -18 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -x & x^2 & -x^3 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The first determinant reduces easily (omitting a factor) to the following :—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1x + b_1 & b_1x + c_1 & c_1x + d_1 \\ a_2x + b_2 & b_2x + c_2 & c_2x + d_2 \\ a_3x + b_3 & b_3x + c_3 & c_3x + d_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

We have seen (Ex. 7, Art. 142) that the order of a determinant may be increased without altering its value. By a suitable selection of the added constituents the calculation of a determinant may often be simplified by bordering it in this way. The determinant last written is plainly equal to

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ a_1 & a_1x + b_1 & b_1x + c_1 & c_1x + d_1 \\ a_2 & a_2x + b_2 & b_2x + c_2 & c_2x + d_2 \\ a_3 & a_3x + b_3 & b_3x + c_3 & c_3x + d_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Subtracting from the second column the first multiplied by x ; subtracting then from the third the new second column multiplied by x ; and, finally, from the fourth the new third column multiplied by x , we have the result above stated.

10. Show that the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda x^2 + cy^2 + bz^2 - 1 & (\lambda - c)xy & (\lambda - b)xz \\ (\lambda - c)xy & \lambda y^2 + ax^2 + cz^2 - 1 & (\lambda - a)yz \\ (\lambda - b)xz & (\lambda - a)yz & \lambda z^2 + bx^2 + ay^2 - 1 \end{vmatrix}$$

contains $\lambda(x^2 + y^2 + z^2) - 1$ as a factor, and that the remaining factor is independent of λ .

Border the determinant, as in Ex. 9, with a first column whose constituents are 1, λx , λy , λz ; and with a first row whose constituents are 1, 0, 0, 0. Subtract then x times the first column from the second, y times the first column from the third, and z times the first column from the fourth. In the determinant thus altered, subtract from the first row x times the second plus y times the third plus z times the fourth.

11. Expand in powers of x the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 + x & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 + x & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 + x & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 + x \end{vmatrix}.$$

Ans. $x^4 + (a_1 + b_2 + c_3 + d_4)x^3 + \{(b_2c_3) + (a_1d_4) + (a_1c_3) + (b_2d_4) + (a_1b_2) + (c_3d_4)\}x^2$
 $+ \{(b_2c_3d_4) + (a_1c_3d_4) + (a_1b_2d_4) + (a_1b_2c_3)\}x + (a_1b_2c_3d_4).$

12. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ a' & b' & c' & d' \\ \frac{a^2}{a'} & \frac{b^2}{b'} & \frac{c^2}{c'} & \frac{d^2}{d'} \\ \frac{a'^2}{a} & \frac{b'^2}{b} & \frac{c'^2}{c} & \frac{d'^2}{d} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{-(bc')(ad')(ca')(bd')(ab')(cd')}{abcd a' b' c' d'}.$$

13. Prove the identities

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha' & \alpha\alpha' \\ 1 & \beta & \beta' & \beta\beta' \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma' & \gamma\gamma' \\ 1 & \delta & \delta' & \delta\delta' \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} B & C \\ B' & C' \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} C & A \\ C' & A' \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} A & B \\ A' & B' \end{vmatrix},$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} A &= (\beta - \gamma)(\alpha - \delta), & B &= (\gamma - \alpha)(\beta - \delta), & C &= (\alpha - \beta)(\gamma - \delta), \\ A' &= (\beta' - \gamma')(\alpha' - \delta'), & B' &= (\gamma' - \alpha')(\beta' - \delta'), & C' &= (\alpha' - \beta')(\gamma' - \delta'). \end{aligned}$$

Expanding the first determinant in terms of the minors formed from the first two columns (see Art. 135), we easily prove that it is equal to

$$A(\beta'\gamma' + \alpha'\delta') + B(\gamma'\alpha' + \beta'\delta') + C(\alpha'\beta' + \gamma'\delta');$$

and employing the identical equation $A + B + C = 0$, along with the relations of Ex. 18, Art. 27, the result follows.

14. Prove that the determinant of Ex. 13 is equal to

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \beta\gamma + \alpha\delta & \beta'\gamma' + \alpha'\delta' \\ 1 & \gamma\alpha + \beta\delta & \gamma'\alpha' + \beta'\delta' \\ 1 & \alpha\beta + \gamma\delta & \alpha'\beta' + \gamma'\delta' \end{vmatrix}.$$

This follows at once from the relations of Ex. 18, Art. 27. If $\alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta'$ be put equal to $\alpha^m, \beta^m, \gamma^m, \delta^m$ in the result, we obtain an identity which includes Ex. 5, p. 53, as a particular case.

15. Express as a function of differences the following determinant, whose vanishing expresses the condition for involution of six points on a line:—

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha + \alpha' & \alpha\alpha' \\ 1 & \beta + \beta' & \beta\beta' \\ 1 & \gamma + \gamma' & \gamma\gamma' \end{vmatrix}.$$

Multiplying the determinant by

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha^2 & -\alpha & 1 \\ \beta^2 & -\beta & 1 \\ \gamma^2 & -\gamma & 1 \end{vmatrix},$$

and then removing the factor $(\beta - \gamma)(\gamma - \alpha)(\alpha - \beta)$ from both sides of the equation, the value of Δ is easily expressed as follows:—

$$\Delta \equiv (\alpha - \beta')(\beta - \gamma')(\gamma - \alpha') + (\alpha' - \beta)(\beta' - \gamma)(\gamma' - \alpha).$$

This result may also be derived from the determinant of Ex. 13, whose vanishing expresses the general homographic relation between two sets of four points.

16. Expand the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & 0 & 0 & 0 & a_4 \\ -1 & x & 0 & 0 & a_3 \\ 0 & -1 & x & 0 & a_2 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & x & a_1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & a_0 \end{vmatrix}.$$

This is found to be identical with the quartic

$$a_0x^4 + a_1x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_3x + a_4;$$

and it is easily seen that a polynomial of any degree can be expressed as a determinant of like form.

17. Prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} x & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & 1 \\ a & x & b_1 & b_2 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & x & c_1 & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & x & 1 \\ \alpha & \beta & \gamma & \delta & 1 \end{vmatrix} \equiv (x - \alpha)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma)(x - \delta);$$

$a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, c_1$ being any quantities.

This follows by subtracting α times the last column from the first, β times the last from the second, &c. The student will have no difficulty in writing down the corresponding determinant of the $(n+1)^{th}$ order which is equal to the polynomial $f(x)$ whose roots are $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3 \dots \alpha_n$.

18. Resolve into factors the determinant

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} (\alpha - \alpha')^2 & (\alpha - \beta')^2 & (\alpha - \gamma')^2 \\ (\beta - \alpha')^2 & (\beta - \beta')^2 & (\beta - \gamma')^2 \\ (\gamma - \alpha')^2 & (\gamma - \beta')^2 & (\gamma - \gamma')^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Here $\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \beta^2 & \beta & 1 \\ \gamma^2 & \gamma & 1 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2\alpha' & \alpha'^2 \\ 1 & -2\beta' & \beta'^2 \\ 1 & -2\gamma' & \gamma'^2 \end{vmatrix};$

and these two determinants may be resolved as in Ex. 9, Art. 132.

19. Resolve into factors the determinant

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} (\alpha - \alpha')^3 & (\alpha - \beta')^3 & (\alpha - \gamma')^3 \\ (\beta - \alpha')^3 & (\beta - \beta')^3 & (\beta - \gamma')^3 \\ (\gamma - \alpha')^3 & (\gamma - \beta')^3 & (\gamma - \gamma')^3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

Multiplying the two rectangular arrays

$$\left. \begin{array}{cccc} \alpha^3 & \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \beta^3 & \beta^2 & \beta & 1 \\ \gamma^3 & \gamma^2 & \gamma & 1 \end{array} \right\} (1), \quad \left. \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & -3\alpha' & 3\alpha'^2 & -\alpha'^3 \\ 1 & -3\beta' & 3\beta'^2 & -\beta'^3 \\ 1 & -3\gamma' & 3\gamma'^2 & -\gamma'^3 \end{array} \right\} (2),$$

Δ becomes equal to the sum of four terms, from each of which we can take out as a factor the product of the two determinants

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma^2 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha' & \alpha'^2 \\ 1 & \beta' & \beta'^2 \\ 1 & \gamma' & \gamma'^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The remaining factor is

$$3 \{ 3\alpha\beta\gamma - \Sigma\beta\gamma\Sigma\alpha' + \Sigma\beta'\gamma'\Sigma\alpha - 3\alpha'\beta'\gamma' \},$$

which can be written also in the form

$$3 \{ (\alpha - \alpha')(\beta - \beta')(\gamma - \gamma') + (\alpha - \beta')(\beta - \gamma')(\gamma - \alpha') + (\alpha - \gamma')(\beta - \alpha')(\gamma - \beta') \}.$$

20. Prove the expansion

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1+a_1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1+a_2 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1+a_3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1+a_4 \end{vmatrix} = a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{a_1} + \frac{1}{a_2} + \frac{1}{a_3} + \frac{1}{a_4} \right\}.$$

This is easily proved by subtracting the first column from each of the others, and then expanding the determinant as a linear function of the constituents of the first column. It will be apparent from the nature of the proof that the value of the similar determinant of the n^{th} order is $a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_n \left\{ 1 + \Sigma \frac{1}{a_i} \right\}$.

21. Prove the relation

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha & x & x & x \\ x & \beta & x & x \\ x & x & \gamma & x \\ x & x & x & \delta \end{vmatrix} = f(x) - xf'(x),$$

where

$$f(x) \equiv (x - \alpha)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma)(x - \delta).$$

This can be derived from the preceding example, or proved independently in a similar way. As in the last example, the determinant of this form of the n^{th} degree can be similarly expressed.

22. Each of the coefficients of any equation can be expressed in terms of the roots as the quotient of two determinants.

The student can easily extend to any degree the following application to the equation of the third degree.

From Ex. 10, Art. 132, we have

$$\begin{vmatrix} x^3 & x^2 & x & 1 \\ \alpha^3 & \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \beta^3 & \beta^2 & \beta & 1 \\ \gamma^3 & \gamma^2 & \gamma & 1 \end{vmatrix} \equiv -(\beta - \gamma)(\gamma - \alpha)(\alpha - \beta)(x - \alpha)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma).$$

Expanding the determinant, this identity can be written

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \beta^2 & \beta & 1 \\ \gamma^2 & \gamma & 1 \end{vmatrix} x^3 - \begin{vmatrix} \alpha^3 & \alpha & 1 \\ \beta^3 & \beta & 1 \\ \gamma^3 & \gamma & 1 \end{vmatrix} x^2 + \begin{vmatrix} \alpha^3 & \alpha^2 & 1 \\ \beta^3 & \beta^2 & 1 \\ \gamma^3 & \gamma^2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} x - \begin{vmatrix} \alpha^3 & \alpha^2 & \alpha \\ \beta^3 & \beta^2 & \beta \\ \gamma^3 & \gamma^2 & \gamma \end{vmatrix} \\ \equiv \begin{vmatrix} \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \beta^2 & \beta & 1 \\ \gamma^2 & \gamma & 1 \end{vmatrix} \{x^3 - p_1x^2 + p_2x - p_3\},$$

from which the above proposition follows, p_1, p_2, p_3 being the coefficients of the equation whose roots are α, β, γ .

23. Express as a determinant the reducing cubic of a biquadratic.

Writing down the equations which result from the identity

$$(a_0x^4 + 4a_1x^3 + 6a_2x^2 + 4a_3x + a_4) \equiv (ax^2 + 2bx + c)(a'x^2 + 2b'x + c'),$$

assuming $6a_0\phi \equiv ac' + a'c - 2bb'$, and substituting in the following identity:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & a' & 0 \\ b & b' & 0 \\ c & c' & 0 \end{vmatrix} \times \begin{vmatrix} a' & a & 0 \\ b' & b & 0 \\ c' & c & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 2aa' & ab' + a'b & ac' + a'c \\ ab' + a'b & 2bb' & bc' + b'c \\ ac' + a'c & bc' + b'c & 2cc' \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

we easily find the equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 + 2a_0\phi \\ a_1 & a_2 - a_0\phi & a_3 \\ a_2 + 2a_0\phi & a_3 & a_4 \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

which when expanded is found to be identical with the standard reducing cubic.

24. Find the condition that a biquadratic should be capable of being expressed as the sum of two fourth powers; and, expressing it in the form

$$ax^4 + 4bx^3 + 6cx^2 + 4dx + e \equiv l(x + \theta)^4 + m(x + \phi)^4,$$

find the quadratic whose roots are θ and ϕ .

From this identity we have the following equations:—

$$\left. \begin{aligned} l + m &= a, \\ l\theta + m\phi &= b, \\ l\theta^2 + m\phi^2 &= c, \\ l\theta^3 + m\phi^3 &= d, \\ l\theta^4 + m\phi^4 &= e \end{aligned} \right\} (1).$$

Assuming $\lambda + \mu x + \nu x^2 = 0$ as the equation whose roots are θ and ϕ , we easily obtain the three equations

$$\lambda a + \mu b + \nu c = 0,$$

$$\lambda b + \mu c + \nu d = 0,$$

$$\lambda c + \mu d + \nu e = 0,$$

from which we have at once the required condition $J = 0$; and from the first two, along with the assumed equation, we obtain the following quadratic whose roots are θ and ϕ :—

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

If it were required to express a cubic as the sum of two cubes, in the form $l(x + \theta)^3 + m(x + \phi)^3$, the first four of the above equations (1) would lead to the same quadratic for θ and ϕ .

25. For the biquadratic

$$A(x + \alpha)^4 + B(x + \beta)^4 + C(x + \gamma)^4 + D(x + \delta)^4 = 0,$$

prove

$$H = \Sigma AB(\alpha - \beta)^2,$$

$$I = \Sigma AB(\alpha - \beta)^4,$$

$$J = \Sigma ABC(\alpha - \beta)^2(\alpha - \gamma)^2(\beta - \gamma)^2.$$

These expressions are true for a biquadratic written as the sum of any number of fourth powers. If it can be written as the sum of two only, $J = 0$, since only A and B remain; and if it reduces to one fourth power, H, I, J all vanish—results already obtained by other methods.

26. Discuss the determinant of the fourth order, whose constituents $(\alpha - \alpha')^4, (\alpha - \beta')^4$, &c. are arranged as in Ex. 19, p. 57; and if $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta'$ are the roots of two given biquadratic equations, show that the value in terms of the coefficients contains as a factor

$$ae' + a'e - 4(bd' + b'd) + 6cd'.$$

When the two biquadratics are identical this factor becomes $2I$.

27. Find the condition that the homogeneous quadratic function of three variables

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2fyz + 2gzx + 2hxy$$

should be resolvable into two factors.

Equating the given function to the product of the factors

$$(ax + \beta y + \gamma z)(a'x + \beta'y + \gamma'z),$$

we readily find

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & a' & 0 \\ \beta & \beta' & 0 \\ \gamma & \gamma' & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 8 \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{vmatrix};$$

hence the required condition is that the determinant last written should vanish.

28. Show that the most general values of x, y, z, w which satisfy the two homogeneous equations

$$ax + by + cz + dw = 0, \quad a'x + b'y + c'z + d'w = 0$$

may be expressed symmetrically in terms of two indeterminates X, Y in the form

$$\begin{aligned} (ab')(ac')(ad')x &= aX + a'Y, \\ (ba')(bc')(bd')y &= bX + b'Y, \text{ \&c.} \end{aligned}$$

This can be proved by joining to the two given equations the two following:—

$$\frac{a^2}{a'}x + \frac{b^2}{b'}y + \frac{c^2}{c'}z + \frac{d^2}{d'}w = \lambda, \quad \frac{a'^2}{a}x + \frac{b'^2}{b}y + \frac{c'^2}{c}z + \frac{d'^2}{d}w = \mu,$$

where λ, μ are indeterminate quantities; by then solving for x, y, z, w , as in Art. 144, and reducing the determinants as in Ex. 12, p. 55; and finally making $X = a'b'c'd'\lambda, Y = abc d\mu$.

29. If in any determinant r columns (or rows) become identical when $x = a$, then $(x - a)^{r-1}$ is a factor in the determinant.

This appears easily by subtracting in the given determinant one of the r columns from each of the others. The resulting $r - 1$ columns must each contain $x - a$ as a factor, since by hypothesis each constituent in it vanishes when $x = a$.

30. Find the value of the determinant of the n^{th} order

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} x & a & a & \dots & a \\ a & x & a & \dots & a \\ a & a & x & \dots & a \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ a & a & a & \dots & x \end{vmatrix},$$

whose leading constituents are all equal to x , and the remaining constituents all equal to a .

By the preceding example Δ must contain $(x - \alpha)^{n-1}$ as a factor; and by adding all the columns we see that it must also contain $x + (n - 1)\alpha$ as a factor. Hence Δ can differ by a numerical factor only from the product of these; and by comparing the product with the leading term we find

$$\Delta = (x - \alpha)^{n-1} \{x + (n - 1)\alpha\}.$$

This result can readily be proved directly without the aid of Ex. 29.

31. The determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} f_1(\alpha) & f_2(\alpha) & f_3(\alpha) \\ f_1(\beta) & f_2(\beta) & f_3(\beta) \\ f_1(\gamma) & f_2(\gamma) & f_3(\gamma) \end{vmatrix},$$

in which f_1, f_2, f_3 are any rational integral functions, contains the difference-product $(\beta - \gamma)(\gamma - \alpha)(\alpha - \beta)$ as a factor.

This appears readily by reasoning similar to that of Ex. 29. Determinants of this nature, in which the constituents of any column (or row) are functions of the same form, and the constituents of any row (or column) involve the same quantity, are called *alternants*. It is clear that the result is general, and that the alternant of any order contains as a factor the difference-product of all the quantities involved. The determinants of Exs. 9, 10, Art. 132, and Exs. 11, 12, Art. 140, are alternants of the simplest form.

32. Express in the form of a determinant the quotient of the alternant in the preceding example by the difference-product.

Assuming, to fix the ideas, that the functions involved are each of the fifth degree (which will include lower degrees by making some coefficients vanish), we may write

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(\alpha) &= a_1\alpha^5 + b_1\alpha^4 + c_1\alpha^3 + d_1\alpha^2 + e_1\alpha + f_1, \\ f_2(\alpha) &= a_2\alpha^5 + b_2\alpha^4 + c_2\alpha^3 + d_2\alpha^2 + e_2\alpha + f_2, \\ f_3(\alpha) &= a_3\alpha^5 + b_3\alpha^4 + c_3\alpha^3 + d_3\alpha^2 + e_3\alpha + f_3. \end{aligned}$$

Now, taking α, β, γ to be the roots of the equation

$$x^3 + px^2 + qx + r = 0,$$

and forming the product of the following determinants:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha^5 & \alpha^4 & \alpha^3 & \alpha^2 & \alpha & 1 \\ \beta^5 & \beta^4 & \beta^3 & \beta^2 & \beta & 1 \\ \gamma^5 & \gamma^4 & \gamma^3 & \gamma^2 & \gamma & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 & e_1 & f_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 & e_2 & f_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 & e_3 & f_3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & p & q & r \\ 0 & 1 & p & q & r & 0 \\ 1 & p & q & r & 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix},$$

it readily appears that the determinant last written is the required quotient.

A similar method may be used to form the quotient when the alternant is of any order, and f_1, f_2, f_3 , &c. rational integral functions of any degrees.

33. Resolve the following determinant into linear factors:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 \\ a_5 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \\ a_4 & a_5 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_1 & a_2 \\ a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_1 \end{vmatrix}.$$

In all the rows the constituents are the same five quantities taken in circular order, a different one standing first in each row. A determinant of this kind is called a *circulant*. It is convenient to write a circulant in the form here given, viz., such that the same constituent occupies the diagonal place throughout. Taking θ to be any root of the equation $x^5 - 1 = 0$, and adding to the first column the sum of the constituents of the remaining columns multiplied by $\theta, \theta^2, \theta^3, \theta^4$ respectively, we observe that the following are factors of the determinant:—

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5, \\ a_1 + \theta a_2 + \theta^2 a_3 + \theta^3 a_4 + \theta^4 a_5, \\ a_1 + \theta^2 a_2 + \theta^4 a_3 + \theta a_4 + \theta^3 a_5, \\ a_1 + \theta^3 a_2 + \theta a_3 + \theta^4 a_4 + \theta^2 a_5, \\ a_1 + \theta^4 a_2 + \theta^3 a_3 + \theta^2 a_4 + \theta a_5, \end{aligned}$$

the five roots of $x^5 - 1 = 0$ being $1, \theta, \theta^2, \theta^3, \theta^4$; and comparing the coefficient of a_1^5 in both expressions, it appears that the numerical factor is unity (cf. Ex. 13, Art. 140). A circulant of any order can be treated in a similar manner.

34. The product of two circulants of the same order is a circulant.

35. Calculate the determinant of the n^{th} order

$$\Delta_n \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a_n & b_n & 0 & 0 & 0 & . \\ -1 & a_{n-1} & b_{n-1} & 0 & 0 & . \\ 0 & -1 & a_{n-2} & b_{n-2} & 0 & . \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & a_{n-3} & b_{n-3} & . \\ . & . & . & . & . & . \end{vmatrix},$$

in which all the constituents are zero except those which lie in the diagonal and in lines adjacent to it on either side and parallel to it, one of these latter sets consisting of constituents each equal to -1 .

Expanding in terms of the first column, we have the following relation connecting three determinants of the kind here considered whose orders are $n, n-1, n-2$:—

$$\Delta_n = a_n \Delta_{n-1} + b_n \Delta_{n-2}.$$

By aid of this equation the calculation of any determinant is reduced to that of the two next inferior to it in the series $\Delta_n, \Delta_{n-1}, \Delta_{n-2}, \dots, \Delta_2, \Delta_1$; and the values of Δ_1 and Δ_2 are plainly a_1 and $a_2 a_1 + b_2$, respectively.

Dividing the equation just given by Δ_{n-1} we have

$$\frac{\Delta_n}{\Delta_{n-1}} = a_n + \frac{b_n}{\frac{\Delta_{n-1}}{\Delta_{n-2}}};$$

replacing by a similar value the quotient of Δ_{n-1} by Δ_{n-2} , and continuing the process, it appears that the quotient of any determinant by the one next below it in the series can be expressed as a continued fraction in terms of the given constituents. On account of this property, determinants of the form here treated are called *continuants*. When each of the constituents $b_n, b_{n-1}, \dots, b_3, b_2$ (in the line above the diagonal) is equal to + 1, the resulting determinant is a *simple continuant*.

36. Calculate the determinant of the n^{th} order

$$\Delta_n \equiv \begin{vmatrix} \alpha & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & . \\ \beta & \alpha & 1 & 0 & 0 & . \\ 0 & \beta & \alpha & 1 & 0 & . \\ 0 & 0 & \beta & \alpha & 1 & . \\ . & . & . & . & . & . \end{vmatrix},$$

whose only constituents which do not vanish are $\alpha, \beta, 1$, occupying the diagonal and the lines adjacent and parallel to it as here represented.

The calculation is readily effected for any particular value of n , in a manner similar to that of the last example, by aid of the equation

$$\Delta_n = \alpha \Delta_{n-1} - \beta \Delta_{n-2},$$

the values of Δ_1 and Δ_2 being α and $\alpha^2 - \beta$, respectively.

By examining the formation of the successive values of Δ , the student will readily observe that the terms contained in the result are

$$\alpha^{2r}, \quad \alpha^{2r-2}\beta, \quad \alpha^{2r-4}\beta^2, \quad \dots, \quad \alpha^2\beta^{r-1}, \quad \beta^r,$$

when n is even and of the form $2r$; and

$$\alpha^{2r+1}, \quad \alpha^{2r-1}\beta, \quad \alpha^{2r-3}\beta^2, \quad \dots, \quad \alpha^3\beta^{r-1}, \quad \alpha\beta^r,$$

when n is odd and of the form $2r + 1$.

For the purposes of a subsequent investigation, in which the results just stated will be made use of, it is not necessary to know the general forms of the numerical coefficients which enter into these expressions; but such forms can be arrived at without difficulty, and the following general expression obtained for Δ_n :—

$$\Delta_n = \alpha^n - (n-1) \alpha^{n-2} \beta + \frac{(n-3)(n-2)}{1 \cdot 2} \alpha^{n-4} \beta^2 - \frac{(n-5)(n-4)(n-3)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \alpha^{n-6} \beta^3 + \&c.$$

37. When a polynomial U is divided by another U' of lower dimensions, the coefficients of the quotient, and of the remainder, can be expressed as determinants in terms of the coefficients of U and U' .

The method employed in the following particular case is equally applicable in general. Let U be of the fifth, and U' of the third degree; the quotient and remainder can then be represented as follows:—

$$Q \equiv q_0x^2 + q_1x + q_2, \quad R \equiv r_0x^2 + r_1x + r_2.$$

Also, let

$$U \equiv a_0x^5 + a_1x^4 + a_2x^3 + a_3x^2 + a_4x + a_5, \quad U' \equiv a'_0x^3 + a'_1x^2 + a'_2x + a'_3.$$

$$\text{From the identity} \quad U \equiv QU' + R$$

we have the following equations:—

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= q_0a'_0, \\ a_1 &= q_0a'_1 + q_1a'_0, \\ a_2 &= q_0a'_2 + q_1a'_1 + q_2a'_0, \\ a_3 &= q_0a'_3 + q_1a'_2 + q_2a'_1 + r_0, \\ a_4 &= q_1a'_3 + q_2a'_2 + r_1, \\ a_5 &= q_2a'_3 + r_2. \end{aligned}$$

Solving by Art. 144, q_0, q_1, q_2 are expressed as determinants by means of the first three of these equations; and taking the first three with each of the others in succession, we determine r_0, r_1, r_2 . For example, to find r_0 we have, from the first four equations,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a'_0 & 0 & 0 & -a_0 \\ a'_1 & a'_0 & 0 & -a_1 \\ a'_2 & a'_1 & a'_0 & -a_2 \\ a'_3 & a'_2 & a'_1 & -a_3 + r_0 \end{vmatrix} = 0, \quad \text{or} \quad a'_0{}^3r_0 = \begin{vmatrix} a'_0 & 0 & 0 & a_0 \\ a'_1 & a'_0 & 0 & a_1 \\ a'_2 & a'_1 & a'_0 & a_2 \\ a'_3 & a'_2 & a'_1 & a_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

38. Find the general forms of the coefficients of the quotient, and of the remainder, when a polynomial of even degree $2m$ is divided by a quadratic.

Taking $x^2 + \alpha x + \beta$ as the given quadratic function, we have the identity

$$\begin{aligned} & a_0x^{2m} + a_1x^{2m-1} + a_2x^{2m-2} + \dots + a_{2m-2}x^2 + a_{2m-1}x + a_{2m} \\ & \equiv (q_0x^{2m-2} + q_1x^{2m-3} + \dots + q_{2m-3}x + q_{2m-2})(x^2 + \alpha x + \beta) + r_0x + r_1. \end{aligned}$$

Writing down the first $r+1$ equations, formed as in the preceding example, to solve for $q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_r$, it is easily seen that the value of q_r thence derived is a determinant of the r^{th} order of the form treated in Ex. 36, bordered at the top with the constituents 1, 0, \dots , 0, a_0 , and at the right-hand side with a_0, a_1, \dots, a_r . Expanding this determinant in terms of the last column, it is immediately seen that any quotient is expressed by means of a series of the determinants of Ex. 36 in the form

$$q_r = a_r - a_{r-1}\Delta_1 + a_{r-2}\Delta_2 - \&c. \dots \mp a_1\Delta_{r-1} \pm \Delta_r;$$

the upper or lower sign to be used according as r is even or odd. To obtain the coefficients of the remainder we have the equations

$$\beta q_{2m-3} + \alpha q_{2m-2} + r_0 = a_{2m-1},$$

$$\beta q_{2m-2} + r_1 = a_{2m}.$$

Expressing the values of q_{2m-3} , q_{2m-2} by the formula just proved, and attending to the results of Ex. 36, we derive the following general forms for r_0 and r_1 :—

$$r_0 = A_{2m-1} + A_{2m-3}\beta + A_{2m-5}\beta^2 + \dots + A_3\beta^{m-2} + A_1\beta^{m-1},$$

$$r_1 = a_{2m} + B_{2m-2}\beta + B_{2m-4}\beta^2 + \dots + B_2\beta^{m-1} + B_0\beta^m,$$

in which the coefficients A , B are all functions of α , the highest power of α in any coefficient A or B being represented by the suffix attached to the coefficient.

39. If the leading constituents of a symmetric determinant be all increased by the same quantity x , the equation in x obtained by equating to zero the determinant so formed has all its roots real.

Let the determinant of the n^{th} order under consideration be denoted by Δ_n , and written in the form

$$\Delta_n \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a+x & h & g & . \\ . & h & b+x & f \\ . & g & f & c+x \\ . & . & . & . \end{vmatrix}.$$

Let the determinant obtained from this by erasing the first row and first column, i.e. the leading first minor of Δ_n , be denoted by Δ_{n-1} ; again, the leading first minor of Δ_{n-1} by Δ_{n-2} ; and so on, the last function Δ_1 obtained in this way being of the form $l+x$. To these we add the positive constant $\Delta_0 = 1$, which may be regarded as completing the series of minors and obtained by the same process, since Δ_n is not altered by affixing a last row and a last column consisting entirely of zero-elements, with the exception of the constituent $+1$ in the leading diagonal. We have now a series of $n+1$ functions—

$$\Delta_n, \Delta_{n-1}, \Delta_{n-2}, \dots, \Delta_2, \Delta_1, \Delta_0,$$

whose degrees in x are represented by the suffixes. When $+\infty$ is substituted for x , the signs are all positive, and when $-\infty$ is substituted, the signs (beginning with Δ_0) are alternately positive and negative. Hence if x be regarded as increasing continuously, n changes of sign must be lost in this series during the passage from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$. Now it appears by the theorem of Art. 149, that a value of x which causes any function (excluding Δ_n, Δ_0) in this series to vanish gives opposite signs to the functions adjacent to it on either side. Δ_0 retains its sign throughout. It follows, exactly as in (2), Art. 96, that a change of sign can never be lost except when x passes through a real root of $\Delta_n = 0$. There must, therefore, exist n real roots of this equation in order that n changes may be lost during the passage of x from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$.

Any equation in the series, being of the same form as $\Delta_n = 0$, has all its roots real. It is plain also that each of these equations is a limiting equation (see Art. 90) with reference to the equation next above it in the series; since, in order that a change of sign may be lost between Δ_n and Δ_{n-1} at the passage through each of two consecutive roots of the former, the value of Δ_{n-1} must change sign between these two values of x . The equation $\Delta_n = 0$ may have equal roots, and by what has been just proved it appears that, when this equation has r roots equal to α , the equation $\Delta_{n-1} = 0$ has $r - 1$ roots equal to α , the equation $\Delta_{n-2} = 0$ has $r - 2$ roots equal to α , and so on.

The determinant here discussed occurs in several investigations in pure and applied mathematics. The proof here given of the important property under discussion is taken from Salmon's *Higher Algebra* (Art. 46), to which work the student is referred for other proofs of the same theorem.

40. If the determinant of the preceding example have r roots equal to α , prove that every first minor has $r - 1$ roots equal to α , every second minor $r - 2$ roots equal to α , and so on.

Employing the notation A, H, G, \dots for the elements of the reciprocal determinant, we have the equation

$$AB - H^2 = \Delta_{n-2} \Delta_n.$$

Now it is easily seen, by proper transpositions of rows and columns, that every *leading* first minor contains the multiple root $r - 1$ times. It follows from the equation just written that the minor H must contain this root $r - 1$ times; and H may be taken to represent any first minor.

41. Find the conditions that the equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a+x & h & g \\ h & b+x & f \\ g & f & c+x \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

should have equal roots.

Since each first minor must contain the double root, we readily derive the required conditions in the following form:—

$$a - \frac{gh}{f} = b - \frac{hf}{g} = c - \frac{fg}{h}.$$

[This and the preceding example are taken from Routh's *Dynamics of a System of Rigid Bodies*, Part II., Art. 61.]

42. Any symmetrical determinant can be altered so as to have any selected pair of conjugate constituents each zero, the determinant remaining symmetrical.

Consider, for example, the determinant obtained by putting $x = 0$ in the preceding example, and suppose it is required to remove the constituent g . Multiply

each constituent of the third column by a (dividing the whole determinant by a at the same time), and subtract from the constituents so altered those of the first column multiplied by g . Treat now the two corresponding rows in the same way; the resulting determinant is symmetrical, and in it g is replaced by zero. This process may be applied to a determinant of any order, to remove in succession all the conjugate constituents of the first row and column, and afterwards of the remaining rows and columns, so as to reduce the determinant finally to one, all of whose constituents vanish except those in the leading diagonal.

43. Reduce the following determinant, of any order, to a form in which x will appear in the leading constituents only:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1x + a'_1 & b_1x + b'_1 & c_1x + c'_1 & . \\ a_2x + a'_2 & b_2x + b'_2 & c_2x + c'_2 & . \\ a_3x + a'_3 & b_3x + b'_3 & c_3x + c'_3 & . \\ . & . & . & . \end{vmatrix}.$$

Multiply by the determinant reciprocal to $(a_1b_2c_3 \dots l_n)$. If the given determinant is symmetrical, the determinant derived from it in this way will not be symmetrical; but a different process may be used to reduce it in that case to a *symmetrical* determinant which will have x present in the leading constituents only, viz. by removing the coefficients of x from all pairs of conjugate constituents in succession by a process exactly analogous to that of the preceding example. If the coefficients of x in the leading constituents of the reduced determinant should all have the same sign, it may be proved, just as in Ex. 39, that the corresponding equation will have all its roots real.

44. Let a determinant of the n^{th} order be divided into two rectangular arrays, one containing μ rows, and the other ν rows (where $\mu + \nu = n$), and let $\mu\nu$ sums of products be formed by operating with one array on the other as in the multiplication of determinants; if then such relations exist among the constituents that all these sums of products separately vanish, the determinants of order μ formed from the first array are proportional to determinants of order ν formed from the complementary constituents of the second.

To fix the ideas, we take a determinant of the fifth order, but the mode of proof is perfectly general. Let the determinant

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & b_4 & b_5 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 & c_4 & c_5 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 & y_4 & y_5 \end{vmatrix}$$

be split horizontally into two arrays, one of three, and the other of two rows; and let the following six relations exist:—

$$\Sigma a_1 x_1 = 0, \quad \Sigma a_1 y_1 = 0, \quad \Sigma b_1 x_1 = 0, \quad \Sigma b_1 y_1 = 0, \quad \Sigma c_1 x_1 = 0, \quad \Sigma c_1 y_1 = 0.$$

If now Δ be expanded by Laplace's theorem, and the minor determinants so taken (as can readily be done) that the expansion is written *with all positive signs*, e. g. in the form:—

$$\Delta = (a_1 b_2 c_3) (x_4 y_5) + (a_1 b_3 c_4) (x_2 y_5) + (a_1 b_2 c_4) (x_5 y_3) + (a_1 b_2 c_5) (x_3 y_4) + \&c.,$$

it is proposed to prove that each minor determinant of the third order formed from the first array is proportional to its factor in the expansion of Δ so written.

We use for convenience the following notation for the expansion last written—

$$\Delta \equiv LL' + MM' + NN' + PP' + \&c.$$

Squaring the determinant Δ , making use of the above relations, replacing by their values the determinants obtained by squaring separately each of the component arrays, and equating the two values of Δ^2 thus obtained, we have

$$(LL' + MM' + NN' + \&c. \dots)^2 = (L^2 + M^2 + N^2 + \&c. \dots) (L'^2 + M'^2 + N'^2 + \&c. \dots),$$

whence

$$(LM' - L'M)^2 + (LN' - L'N)^2 + (MN' - M'N)^2 + \&c. \dots = 0,$$

from which we have at once

$$\frac{L}{L'} = \frac{M}{M'} = \frac{N}{N'} = \frac{P}{P'} = \&c.$$

45. Write down the relations which exist among the minors of the second order formed from a determinant of the fourth order divided equally into two rectangular arrays in the manner of the last example, like conditions being fulfilled.

We take the general determinant of the fourth order

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & d_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & d_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & d_3 \\ a_4 & b_4 & c_4 & d_4 \end{vmatrix},$$

and first expand it by Laplace's theorem. As the expansion of such a determinant in terms of its second minors is often required in practice, the student is recommended to accustom himself to write it with all positive signs as follows:—

$$\begin{aligned} & (b_1 c_2) (a_3 d_4) + (c_1 a_2) (b_3 d_4) + (a_1 b_2) (c_3 d_4) \\ & + (a_1 d_2) (b_3 c_4) + (b_1 d_2) (c_3 a_4) + (c_1 d_2) (a_3 b_4). \end{aligned}$$

The method of writing this down is obvious, the same arrangement being observed as on all former occasions where four letters were involved.

By the preceding example, we have at once the relations

$$\frac{(b_1c_2)}{(a_3d_4)} = \frac{(c_1a_2)}{(b_3d_4)} = \frac{(a_1b_2)}{(c_3d_4)} = \frac{(a_1d_2)}{(b_3c_4)} = \frac{(b_1d_2)}{(c_3a_4)} = \frac{(c_1d_2)}{(a_3b_4)},$$

provided the following four equations hold:—

$$\Sigma a_1a_3 = 0, \quad \Sigma a_1a_4 = 0, \quad \Sigma a_2a_3 = 0, \quad \Sigma a_2a_4 = 0.$$

What is here proved has an important application in geometry of three dimensions with reference to the six coordinates of a right line. (See Salmon's *Analytic Geometry of Three Dimensions*, 4th ed., Art. 57 b.)

It may be remarked here that it will be found convenient to write uniformly with positive signs the expansion of a determinant of the third order, which occurs so often in practical questions. Taking, for example, the determinant obtained by erasing the last row and last column of Δ , we write its expansion as follows, the three letters being taken in circular order:—

$$(a_1b_2c_3) = a_1(b_2c_3) + b_1(c_2a_3) + c_1(a_2b_3).$$

46. Derive the equations (3) of Art. 145, for obtaining the ratios of n variables from $n - 1$ linear homogeneous equations, from the proposition of Ex. 44.

47. Express by determinants the values of the unknown quantities derived from a set of given linear equations by the *Method of Least Squares*.

The given equations, which are greater in number than the unknown quantities, are supposed to have been obtained as the result of observation or experiment; and the numerical coefficients which enter into them, being consequently liable to errors of observation, are not known with certainty. In such cases the most reliable values of the unknown quantities are obtained in the manner about to be explained by what is called the "method of least squares." Take, for example, five equations of the form $a_1x + b_1y + c_1z = m_1$, $a_2x + b_2y + c_2z = m_2$, &c., between three unknown quantities x, y, z . Multiply them respectively by a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5 , and add; again by b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5 , and add; and again by c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, c_5 , and add. In this way the following three equations are obtained:—

$$x\Sigma a_1^2 + y\Sigma a_1b_1 + z\Sigma a_1c_1 = \Sigma a_1m_1,$$

$$x\Sigma a_1b_1 + y\Sigma b_1^2 + z\Sigma b_1c_1 = \Sigma b_1m_1,$$

$$x\Sigma a_1c_1 + y\Sigma b_1c_1 + z\Sigma c_1^2 = \Sigma c_1m_1;$$

from which we have, without difficulty,

$$x = \frac{(a_1b_2c_3)(m_1b_2c_4) + (a_1b_2c_4)(m_1b_2c_5) + \dots + (a_3b_4c_5)(m_3b_4c_6)}{(a_1b_2c_3)^2 + (a_1b_2c_4)^2 + \dots + (a_3b_4c_5)^2},$$

with corresponding values for y and z , each of these values containing ten terms in the numerator and ten in the denominator.

48. Show that the value of x given in the preceding example can be obtained by first eliminating y and z from every set of three of the five given equations, and then applying the method of least squares to the ten equations in x alone which result from the elimination.

CHAPTER XIV.

ELIMINATION.

150. Definitions.—Being given a system of n equations, homogeneous between n variables, or non-homogeneous between $n - 1$ variables, if we combine these equations in such a manner as to eliminate the variables, and obtain an equation $R = 0$ containing only the coefficients of the equations, the quantity R is, when expressed in a rational and integral form, called the *Resultant* or *Eliminant*.

In what follows we shall be concerned chiefly with two equations involving one unknown quantity x only. In this case the equation $R = 0$ asserts that the two equations are consistent; that is, they are both satisfied by a common value of x . We now proceed to show how the elimination may be performed so as to obtain the quantity R , illustrating the different methods by simple examples. It is proper to observe that the value of R arrived at by some processes of elimination may contain a redundant factor. The method of elimination by symmetric functions leads to a value of R free from any such factor; and we refer, therefore, to the conclusion of the discussion in the next Article for the precise definition of the *Resultant*.

Let it be required to eliminate x between the equations

$$ax^2 + 2bx + c = 0, \quad a'x^2 + 2b'x + c' = 0.$$

Solving these equations, and equating the values of x so obtained, the result of elimination appears in the irrational form

$$-\frac{b}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{b^2 - ac}}{a} = -\frac{b'}{a'} + \frac{\sqrt{b'^2 - a'c'}}{a'}.$$

Multiplying by aa' we obtain

$$ab' - a'b = a\sqrt{b'^2 - a'c'} - a'\sqrt{b^2 - ac}.$$

Squaring both sides, and dividing by the redundant factor aa' , and then squaring again, we find

$$R = 4(ac - b^2)(a'c' - b'^2) - (ac' + a'c - 2bb')^2.$$

This method of forming the resultant is very limited in application, as it is not, in general, possible to express by an algebraic formula a root of an equation higher than the fourth degree. Other methods have consequently been devised for determining the resultant without first solving the equations. We now proceed to explain the method of elimination by symmetric functions of the roots of the equations.

151. Elimination by Symmetric Functions.—Let two algebraic equations of the m^{th} and n^{th} degrees be

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(x) &= a_0x^m + a_1x^{m-1} + a_2x^{m-2} + \dots + a_m = 0, \\ \psi(x) &= b_0x^n + b_1x^{n-1} + b_2x^{n-2} + \dots + b_n = 0;\end{aligned}$$

and let it be required to find the condition that these equations should have a common root. For this purpose let the roots of the equation $\phi(x) = 0$ be a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m . If the given equations have a common root, it is *necessary* and *sufficient* that one of the quantities

$$\psi(a_1), \psi(a_2), \dots, \psi(a_m)$$

should be zero, or, in other words, that the product

$$\psi(a_1)\psi(a_2)\psi(a_3)\dots\psi(a_m)$$

should vanish. If, now, we transform this product into a rational and integral function of the coefficients, which is always possible, as it is a symmetric function of the roots of the equation $\phi(x) = 0$, we shall have the resultant required. Further, if $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n$ be the roots of the equation $\psi(x) = 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(a_1) &= b_0(a_1 - \beta_1)(a_1 - \beta_2)\dots(a_1 - \beta_n), \\ \psi(a_2) &= b_0(a_2 - \beta_1)(a_2 - \beta_2)\dots(a_2 - \beta_n), \\ &\vdots \\ \psi(a_m) &= b_0(a_m - \beta_1)(a_m - \beta_2)\dots(a_m - \beta_n).\end{aligned}$$

If we change the signs of the mn factors, and multiply these equations, taking together the factors which are situated in the same column, we find

$$a_0^n \psi(a_1) \psi(a_2) \dots \psi(a_m) = (-1)^{mn} b_0^m \phi(\beta_1) \phi(\beta_2) \dots \phi(\beta_n).$$

We may therefore take

$$R = (-1)^{mn} b_0^m \phi(\beta_1) \phi(\beta_2) \dots \phi(\beta_n) = a_0^n \psi(a_1) \psi(a_2) \dots \psi(a_m), \quad (1)$$

for both these values of R are integral functions of the coefficients of $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$, which vanish only when $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$ have a common factor, and which become identical when they are expressed in terms of the coefficients.

152. Properties of the Resultant.—(1). *The order of the resultant of two equations in the coefficients is equal to the sum of the degrees of the equations, the coefficients of the first equation entering R in the degree of the second, and the coefficients of the second entering in the degree of the first.*

This appears by reviewing the two forms of R in (1), Art. 151; for in the first form a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m enter in the n^{th} degree, and in the second form b_0, b_1, \dots, b_n enter in the m^{th} degree. Also, it may be seen that two terms, one selected from each form, are $(-1)^{mn} b_0^m a_m^n$ and $a_0^n b_n^m$.

(2). *If the roots of both equations be multiplied by the same quantity ρ , the resultant is multiplied by ρ^{mn} .*

This is evident, since any one of the mn factors of the form $\alpha_p - \beta_q$ becomes $\rho(\alpha_p - \beta_q)$, and therefore ρ^{mn} divides the resultant. From this we may conclude that the weight of the resultant is mn , in which form this proposition is often stated.

(3). *If the roots of both equations be increased by the same quantity, the resultant of the equations so transformed is equal to the resultant of the original equations.*

For we have

$$\pm R = a_0^n b_0^m \Pi (\alpha_p - \beta_q),$$

where Π signifies the continued product of the mn terms of the form $\alpha_p - \beta_q$; and this is unaltered when α_p and β_q receive the same increment.

(4). If the roots be changed into their reciprocals, the value of R obtained from the transformed equations remains unaltered, except in sign when mn is an odd number.

Making this transformation in

$$R = a_0^n b_0^m \Pi (a_p - \beta_q),$$

we have

$$R' = a_m^n b_n^m (-1)^{mn} \frac{\Pi (a_p - \beta_q)}{(a_1 a_2 \dots a_m)^n (\beta_1 \beta_2 \dots \beta_n)^m};$$

but

$$a_1 a_2 \dots a_m = (-1)^m \frac{a_m}{a_0}, \quad \beta_1 \beta_2 \dots \beta_n = (-1)^n \frac{\beta_n}{b_0};$$

substituting, we obtain

$$R' = a_0^n b_0^m (-1)^{mn} \Pi (a_p - \beta_q) = (-1)^{mn} R.$$

From this it follows that in the resultant of two equations the coefficients with complementary suffixes of both equations, e.g. $a_0, a_m; a_1, a_{m-1}$, &c., may be all interchanged without altering the value of the resultant.

(5). If both equations be transformed by homographic transformation, that is, by substituting for x

$$\frac{\lambda x + \mu}{\lambda' x + \mu'}$$

and each simple factor multiplied by $\lambda' x + \mu'$, to render the new equations integral, then the new resultant $R' = (\lambda \mu' - \lambda' \mu)^{mn} R$.

To prove this, we have

$$\phi(x) = a_0 (x - a_1) (x - a_2) \dots (x - a_m),$$

$$\psi(x) = b_0 (x - \beta_1) (x - \beta_2) \dots (x - \beta_n);$$

also

$$x - a_r \text{ becomes } (\lambda - \lambda' a_r) \left(x - \frac{\mu' a_r - \mu}{\lambda - \lambda' a_r} \right),$$

$$x - \beta_r \quad ,, \quad (\lambda - \lambda' \beta_r) \left(x - \frac{\mu' \beta_r - \mu}{\lambda - \lambda' \beta_r} \right).$$

Multiplying together all the factors of each equation,

$$a_0 \text{ becomes } a_0 (\lambda - \lambda' a_1) (\lambda - \lambda' a_2) \dots (\lambda - \lambda' a_m),$$

$$b_0 \quad ,, \quad b_0 (\lambda - \lambda' \beta_1) (\lambda - \lambda' \beta_2) \dots (\lambda - \lambda' \beta_n).$$

Also, since α_r, β_r are transformed into $\frac{\mu' \alpha_r - \mu}{\lambda - \lambda' \alpha_r}, \frac{\mu' \beta_r - \mu}{\lambda - \lambda' \beta_r},$

$$\alpha_r - \beta_r \text{ becomes } \frac{(\lambda \mu' - \lambda' \mu)(\alpha_r - \beta_r)}{(\lambda - \lambda' \alpha_r)(\lambda - \lambda' \beta_r)};$$

whence

$$\alpha_0^n b_0^m \Pi(\alpha_r - \beta_r) \text{ becomes } \alpha_0^n b_0^m (\lambda \mu' - \lambda' \mu)^{mn} \Pi(\alpha_r - \beta_r),$$

that is, the resultant calculated from the new forms of $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$ is

$$(\lambda \mu' - \lambda' \mu)^{mn} R.$$

This proposition includes the three foregoing; and they are collectively equivalent to the present proposition.

153. Euler's Method of Elimination.—When two equations $\phi(x) = 0$, and $\psi(x) = 0$, of the m^{th} and n^{th} degrees respectively, have any common root θ , we may assume

$$\phi(x) = (x - \theta) \phi_1(x),$$

$$\psi(x) = (x - \theta) \psi_1(x),$$

where

$$\phi_1(x) = p_1 x^{m-1} + p_2 x^{m-2} + \dots + p_m,$$

$$\psi_1(x) = q_1 x^{n-1} + q_2 x^{n-2} + \dots + q_n,$$

the coefficients being undetermined quantities depending on θ . Whence we have

$$\phi(x) \psi_1(x) = \psi(x) \phi_1(x),$$

an identical equation of the $(m+n-1)^{th}$ degree. Now, equating the coefficients of the different powers of x on both sides of the equation, we have $m+n$ homogeneous equations of the first degree in the $m+n$ quantities $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n$; and eliminating these quantities by the method of Art. 145, we obtain the resultant of the two given equations in the form of a determinant.

EXAMPLE.

Suppose the two equations

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0, \quad a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 = 0$$

to have a common root. We have identically

$$(q_1x + q_2)(ax^2 + bx + c) \equiv (p_1x + p_2)(a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1),$$

or
$$(q_1a - p_1a_1)x^3 + (q_1b + q_2a - p_1b_1 - p_2a_1)x^2 + (q_1c + q_2b - p_1c_1 - p_2b_1)x + q_2c - p_2c_1 \equiv 0.$$

Equating to zero all the coefficients of this equation, we have the four homogeneous equations

$$\begin{aligned} q_1a - p_1a_1 &= 0, \\ q_1b + q_2a - p_1b_1 - p_2a_1 &= 0, \\ q_1c + q_2b - p_1c_1 - p_2b_1 &= 0, \\ q_2c - p_2c_1 &= 0; \end{aligned}$$

and eliminating p_1, p_2, q_1, q_2 , we obtain the condition for a common root in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & 0 & a_1 & 0 \\ b & a & b_1 & a_1 \\ c & b & c_1 & b_1 \\ 0 & c & 0 & c_1 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

The student can easily verify that this result is the same as that of Art. 150.

154. Sylvester's Dialytic Method of Elimination.—

This method leads to the same determinants for resultants as the method of Euler just explained; but it has an advantage over Euler's method in point of generality, since it can often be applied to form the resultant of equations involving several variables.

Suppose we require the resultant of the two equations

$$\phi(x) \equiv a_0x^m + a_1x^{m-1} + a_2x^{m-2} + \dots + a_m = 0,$$

$$\psi(x) \equiv b_0x^n + b_1x^{n-1} + b_2x^{n-2} + \dots + b_n = 0,$$

we multiply the first by the successive powers of x ,

$$x^{n-1}, x^{n-2}, \dots, x^2, x, x^0;$$

and the second by $x^{m-1}, x^{m-2}, \dots, x^2, x, x^0$,

thus obtaining $m + n$ equations, the highest power of x being $m + n - 1$. We have, consequently, equations enough from which to eliminate $x^{m+n-1}, x^{m+n-2}, \dots, x^2, x$ considered as distinct variables.

EXAMPLES.

1. Find the resultant
- R
- of two quadratic equations

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0, \quad a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 = 0.$$

We have

$$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx = 0,$$

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0,$$

$$a_1x^3 + b_1x^2 + c_1x = 0,$$

$$a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 = 0;$$

from which, eliminating x^3 , x^2 , x , we get the same determinant as in the preceding Article, columns now replacing rows :

$$R = \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c & 0 \\ 0 & a & b & c \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \end{vmatrix}.$$

2. Form the resultant of the two equations

$$U \equiv a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4x^4 = 0,$$

$$V \equiv b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2 + b_3x^3 = 0.$$

Proceeding as before, we easily find

$$R = \begin{vmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \\ b_0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b_0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b_0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & b_0 & b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

It will be observed that R contains the coefficients of U in the 3rd degree, and those of V in the 4th degree; also $a_0^3b_3^4$ is a term in R (see (1), Art. 152).

155. Bezout's Method of Elimination.—The general method will be most easily understood by applying it in the first instance to particular cases. We proceed to this application—(1) when the equations are of the same degree, and (2) when they are of different degrees.

- (1). Let us take the two cubic equations

$$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0, \quad a_1x^3 + b_1x^2 + c_1x + d_1 = 0.$$

Multiplying these two equations successively by

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a_1 & \text{and} & a, \\ a_1x + b_1 & ,, & ax + b, \\ a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 & ,, & ax^2 + bx + c, \end{array}$$

and subtracting each time the products so formed, we find the three following equations:—

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (ab_1)x^2 & + & (ac_1)x + (ad_1) = 0, \\ (ac_1)x^2 + \{(ad_1) + (bc_1)\}x + (bd_1) & = & 0, \\ (ad_1)x^3 & + & (bd_1)x + (cd_1) = 0. \end{array}$$

By eliminating from these equations x^2 , x , as distinct variables, the resultant is obtained in the form of a symmetrical determinant as follows:—

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} (ab_1) & (ac_1) & (ad_1) \\ (ac_1) & (ad_1) + (bc_1) & (bd_1) \\ (ad_1) & (bd_1) & (cd_1) \end{array} \right|.$$

To render the law of formation of the resultant more apparent, the following mode of procedure is given:—

Let the two equations be biquadratics, as follows:—

$$ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e = 0, \quad a_1x^4 + b_1x^3 + c_1x^2 + d_1x + e_1 = 0;$$

whence, following Cauchy's mode of presenting Bezout's method, we have the system of equations

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{a}{a_1} = \frac{bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e}{b_1x^3 + c_1x^2 + d_1x + e_1}, \\ \frac{ax + b}{a_1x + b_1} = \frac{cx^2 + dx + e}{c_1x^2 + d_1x + e_1}, \\ \frac{ax^2 + bx + c}{a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1} = \frac{dx + e}{d_1x + e_1}, \\ \frac{ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d}{a_1x^3 + b_1x^2 + c_1x + d_1} = \frac{e}{e_1}, \end{array}$$

which, when rendered integral, lead, on the elimination of x^3, x^2, x , to the following form for the resultant:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} (ab_1) & (ac_1) & (ad_1) & (ae_1) \\ (ac_1) & (ad_1) + (bc_1) & (ae_1) + (bd_1) & (be_1) \\ (ad_1) & (ae_1) + (bd_1) & (be_1) + (cd_1) & (ce_1) \\ (ae_1) & (be_1) & (ce_1) & (de_1) \end{vmatrix}.$$

If, now, we consider the two symmetrical determinants

$$\begin{vmatrix} (ab_1) & (ac_1) & (ad_1) & (ae_1) \\ (ac_1) & (ad_1) & (ae_1) & (be_1) \\ (ad_1) & (ae_1) & (be_1) & (ce_1) \\ (ae_1) & (be_1) & (ce_1) & (de_1) \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} (bc_1) & (bd_1) \\ (bd_1) & (cd_1) \end{vmatrix},$$

the formation of which is at once apparent, we observe that R is obtained by adding the constituents of the second to the four central constituents of the first.

Similarly, in the case of the two equations of the fifth degree

$$ax^5 + bx^4 + cx^3 + dx^2 + ex + f = 0,$$

$$a_1x^5 + b_1x^4 + c_1x^3 + d_1x^2 + e_1x + f_1 = 0,$$

the resultant is obtained from the three following determinants:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} (ab_1) & (ac_1) & (ad_1) & (ae_1) & (af_1) \\ (ac_1) & (ad_1) & (ae_1) & (af_1) & (bf_1) \\ (ad_1) & (ae_1) & (af_1) & (bf_1) & (cf_1) \\ (ae_1) & (af_1) & (bf_1) & (cf_1) & (df_1) \\ (af_1) & (bf_1) & (cf_1) & (df_1) & (ef_1) \end{vmatrix}, \quad \begin{vmatrix} (bc_1) & (bd_1) & (be_1) \\ (bd_1) & (be_1) & (ce_1) \\ (be_1) & (ce_1) & (de_1) \end{vmatrix}, \quad (cd_1),$$

by adding the constituents of the second to the nine central constituents of the first, and then adding the third to the central constituent of the determinant so formed. The student will have no difficulty in applying a similar process of superposition to the formation of the determinant in general.

(2). We take now the case of two equations of different dimensions, for example,

$$ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e = 0, \quad a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 = 0.$$

Multiplying these equations successively by

$$\begin{array}{cc} a_1 & \text{and} \quad ax^2, \\ a_1x + b_1 & ,, \quad (ax + b)x^2, \end{array}$$

and subtracting each time the products so formed, we find the two following equations:—

$$\begin{aligned} (ab_1)x^3 + (ac_1)x^2 - da_1x - ea_1 &= 0, \\ (ac_1)x^3 + \{(bc_1) - da_1\}x^2 - \{db_1 + ea_1\}x - eb_1 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

If, now, we join to these the two equations

$$\begin{aligned} a_1x^3 + b_1x^2 + c_1x &= 0, \\ a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

we shall have four equations by means of which x^3 , x^2 , x can be eliminated; whence we obtain the resultant in the form of a determinant as follows:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} (ab_1) & (ac_1) & da_1 & ea_1 \\ (ac_1) & (bc_1) - da_1 & db_1 + ea_1 & eb_1 \\ a_1 & b_1 & -c_1 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 & -b_1 & -c_1 \end{vmatrix}.$$

This determinant involves the coefficients of the first equation in the second degree, and the coefficients of the second equation in the fourth degree, as it should do; whence no extraneous factor enters this form of the resultant.

We now proceed to the general case of two equations of the m^{th} and n^{th} degrees.

Let the equations be

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x) &\equiv a_0x^m + a_1x^{m-1} + a_2x^{m-2} + \dots + a_m = 0, \\ \psi(x) &\equiv b_0x^n + b_1x^{n-1} + b_2x^{n-2} + \dots + b_n = 0, \end{aligned}$$

where $m > n$; and let the second equation be multiplied by x^{m-n} . We have then

$$b_0 x^m + b_1 x^{m-1} + b_2 x^{m-2} + \dots + b_n x^{m-n} = 0,$$

an equation of the same degree as the first. This equation has, however, in addition to the n roots of $\psi(x) = 0$, $m - n$ zero roots; so that we must be on our guard lest the factor a_m^{m-n} (i.e. the result of substituting these roots in $\phi(x)$) enter the form of the resultant obtained. From these two equations we derive, as in the above case—(1), the following n equations:—

$$\frac{a_0}{b_0} = \frac{a_1 x^{m-1} + a_2 x^{m-2} + \dots + a_m}{b_1 x^{m-1} + b_2 x^{m-2} + \dots + b_n x^{m-n}},$$

$$\frac{a_0 x + a_1}{b_0 x + b_1} = \frac{a_2 x^{m-2} + a_3 x^{m-3} + \dots + a_m}{b_2 x^{m-2} + b_3 x^{m-3} + \dots + b_n x^{m-n}},$$

$$\dots \dots \dots$$

$$\frac{a_0 x^{n-1} + a_1 x^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1}}{b_0 x^{n-1} + b_1 x^{n-2} + \dots + b_{n-1}} = \frac{a_n x^{m-n} + a_{n-1} x^{m-n-1} + \dots + a_m}{b_n x^{m-n}},$$

which, when rendered integral, are all of the $(m - 1)^{th}$ degree; whence, eliminating x^{m-1} , x^{m-2} , \dots x as independent quantities between these n and the $m - n$ equations

$$b_0 x^{m-1} + b_1 x^{m-2} + b_2 x^{m-3} + \dots = 0,$$

$$b_0 x^{m-2} + b_1 x^{m-3} + \dots = 0,$$

$$\dots \dots \dots$$

$$b_0 x^n + b_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + b_n = 0,$$

we obtain the resultant in the form of a determinant of the m^{th} order, the coefficients of the first equation entering in the degree n , and the coefficients of the second equation entering in the degree m ; whence it appears that no extraneous factor can enter; and that the resultant as obtained by this method has not been affected by the introduction of the zero roots.

If R be the resultant of two equations $\phi(x) = 0$, $\psi(x) = 0$, whose degrees are both equal to m , the resultant R' of the system

$$\lambda\phi(x) + \mu\psi(x) = 0, \quad \lambda'\phi(x) + \mu'\psi(x) = 0$$

is $(\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^m R$;

for each of the minors $(a_r b_s)$, which in Bezout's method constitute the determinant form of R , becomes in this case

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda a_r + \mu b_r & \lambda' a_r + \mu' b_r \\ \lambda a_s + \mu b_s & \lambda' a_s + \mu' b_s \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu) (a_r b_s);$$

whence $R' = (\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^m R$, since R is a determinant of order m .

156. Other Methods of Elimination.—We conclude the subject of Elimination with an account of a method which is often employed, but which has the disadvantage of giving the resultant multiplied in general by extraneous factors. The process about to be explained is virtually equivalent to that usually described as the method of the greatest common measure.

In forming by this method the resultant of the two quadratic equations

$$ax^2 + bx + c = 0, \quad a_1x^2 + b_1x + c_1 = 0,$$

we multiply these equations successively by a_1 and a , c_1 and c , and subtract the products so formed. We thus find the two equations

$$\begin{aligned} (ab_1)x + (ac_1) &= 0, \\ x\{(ac_1)x + (bc_1)\} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Observing that the value zero for x does not satisfy both the given equations, we may discard the factor x from the second of the equations last written, and thus obtain the resultant without any extraneous factor in the form

$$(ac_1)^2 - (ab_1)(bc_1) = 0.$$

As the degree of this expression is four, and its weight four, it is a correct form for the resultant.

To form by the same process the resultant of the cubic equations

$$ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0, \quad a_1x^3 + b_1x^2 + c_1x + d_1 = 0,$$

we multiply these equations successively by a_1 and a , d_1 and d , and subtract each time the products so formed. We have then

$$(ab_1)x^2 + (ac_1)x + (ad_1) = 0, \quad (ad_1)x^2 + (bd_1)x + (cd_1) = 0. \quad (1)$$

Now, eliminating x between these two quadratics by means of the formula above obtained, we find for their resultant

$$\begin{vmatrix} (ab_1) & (ad_1) \\ (ad_1) & (cd_1) \end{vmatrix}^2 - \begin{vmatrix} (ab_1) & (ac_1) \\ (ad_1) & (bd_1) \end{vmatrix} \times \begin{vmatrix} (ac_1) & (ad_1) \\ (bd_1) & (cd_1) \end{vmatrix},$$

an expression whose degree is 8 and weight 12, in place of degree 6 and weight 9; whence it appears that it ought to be divisible by a factor whose degree is 2 and weight 3. This factor must therefore be of the form $l(bc_1) + m(ad_1)$. We proceed now to show that it is (ad_1) ; and to find the quotient when this factor is removed.

For this purpose, retaining only the terms which do not directly involve (ad_1) , we have

$$(ab_1)(cd_1)\{(ab_1)(cd_1) + (ca_1)(bd_1)\},$$

which is divisible by (ad_1) , since

$$(bc_1)(ad_1) + (ca_1)(bd_1) + (ab_1)(cd_1) = 0.$$

Expanding the determinants, and dividing off by (ad_1) , we find ultimately the quotient

$$(ad_1)^3 - 2(ab_1)(cd_1)(ad_1) + (bd_1)(ca_1)(ad_1) \\ + (ca_1)^2(cd_1) + (ab_1)(bd_1)^2 - (ab_1)(bc_1)(cd_1),$$

which, being of the proper degree and weight, is the resultant.

If we proceed in a similar manner to form the resultant of two biquadratic equations, by reducing the process to an elimination between two cubic equations, we shall have to remove an extraneous factor of the fourth degree, which is the condition that these cubics should have a common factor when the biquadratics from which they are derived have not necessarily a common factor; and in general, if we seek by this method the resultant of two equations of the n^{th} degree, eliminating between two equations of the $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$ degree, we shall have to remove an extraneous factor of the order $2n-4$. This method, therefore,

is inferior to all the preceding methods; and it cannot be conveniently used except when, from the nature of the investigation, extraneous factors can be easily removed.

157. Discriminants.—The *discriminant* of an equation involving a single unknown is the simplest function of the coefficients, in a rational and integral form, whose vanishing expresses the condition for equal roots. We have had examples of such functions in Arts. 43 and 68. We proceed to show that they come under eliminants as particular cases.

If an equation $f(x) = 0$ has a double root, this root must occur once in the equation $f'(x) = 0$; and subtracting $xf'(x)$ from $nf(x)$, the same root must occur in the equation $nf(x) - xf'(x) = 0$. This is an equation of the $(n - 1)^{th}$ degree in x ; and by eliminating x between it and the equation $f'(x) = 0$, which is also of the $(n - 1)^{th}$ degree, we obtain a function of the coefficients whose vanishing expresses the condition for equal roots. The degree of this eliminant in the coefficients of $f(x)$ is $2(n - 1)$; and its weight is $n(n - 1)$, as may be seen by examining the specimen terms given in section (1), Art. 152. Expressed as a symmetric function of the roots of the given equation, the discriminant will be the product of all the differences in the lowest power which can be expressed in a rational form in terms of the coefficients. Now the product of the squares of the differences $\Pi (a_1 - a_2)^2$ can be so expressed; and since it is of the $2(n - 1)^{th}$ degree in any one root, and of the $n(n - 1)^{th}$ degree in all the roots, it follows that the discriminant multiplied by a numerical factor is equal to $a_0^{2(n-1)} \Pi (a_1 - a_2)^2$.

If the function $f(x)$ be made homogeneous by the introduction of a second variable y , the two functions whose resultant is the discriminant of $f(x)$ are the differential coefficients of $f(x)$ with regard to x and y respectively. In the same way, in general, the discriminant of a function homogeneous in any number n of variables is the result of eliminating the variables from the n equations obtained by differentiating with regard to each variable in turn.

EXAMPLES.

1. Find the discriminant of

$$a_0x^3 + 3a_1x^2 + 3a_2x + a_3 = 0.$$

We have here to find the eliminant of the two equations

$$a_0x^2 + 2a_1x + a_2 = 0,$$

$$a_1x^2 + 2a_2x + a_3 = 0.$$

The condition for a common root is, by Art. 150,

$$4(a_0a_2 - a_1^2)(a_1a_3 - a_2^2) - (a_0a_3 - a_1a_2)^2 = 0.$$

The function of the coefficients here obtained is therefore the discriminant, which may also be written in the form of a determinant, as follows, by Art. 154 :

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_0 & 2a_1 & a_2 & 0 \\ 0 & a_0 & 2a_1 & a_2 \\ a_1 & 2a_2 & a_3 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 & 2a_2 & a_3 \end{vmatrix}.$$

It can be easily verified that this value of the discriminant is the same as that already obtained in Art. 42.

2. Express as a determinant the discriminant of the biquadratic

$$a_0x^4 + 4a_1x^3 + 6a_2x^2 + 4a_3x + a_4 = 0.$$

We have here to eliminate x from the equations

$$a_0x^3 + 3a_1x^2 + 3a_2x + a_3 = 0,$$

$$a_1x^3 + 3a_2x^2 + 3a_3x + a_4 = 0.$$

By the method of Art. 154 the resultant is

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_0 & 3a_1 & 3a_2 & a_3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_0 & 3a_1 & 3a_2 & a_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_0 & 3a_1 & 3a_2 & a_3 \\ a_1 & 3a_2 & 3a_3 & a_4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_1 & 3a_2 & 3a_3 & a_4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_1 & 3a_2 & 3a_3 & a_4 \end{vmatrix}.$$

This must be the same as $I^3 - 27J^2$ of Art. 68.

3. Express the discriminant of the quartic as a determinant by Bezout's method of elimination.

4. Prove that the discriminant, Δ_m , of the equation

$$U = ax^m + by^m + cz^m = 0,$$

where $x + y + z = 0$,

may be obtained by rendering rational, in the form $\Delta_m = 0$, the equation

$$(bc)^{\frac{1}{m-1}} + (ca)^{\frac{1}{m-1}} + (ab)^{\frac{1}{m-1}} = 0;$$

and calculate in particular the values of Δ_3 , Δ_4 , Δ_5 .

When z is replaced by its value from $x + y + z = 0$, the given function U contains two variables, and the discriminant is obtained by eliminating x and y from

$$\frac{dU}{dx} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dU}{dy} = 0.$$

5. Prove by elimination that $J = 0$ is one condition for the equality of three roots of the biquadratic of Ex. 2.

Since the triple root must be a double root of

$$U_3 = a_0x^3 + 3a_1x^2 + 3a_2x + a_3 = 0,$$

and therefore a single root of $a_1x^2 + 2a_2x + a_3 = 0$; and since it must also be a single root of

$$U_2 = a_0x^2 + 2a_1x + a_2 = 0,$$

it follows from the identity

$$U_4 = x^2U_2 + 2x(a_1x^2 + 2a_2x + a_3) + a_2x^2 + 2a_3x + a_4$$

that the triple root must be a root common to the three equations

$$a_0x^2 + 2a_1x + a_2 = 0,$$

$$a_1x^2 + 2a_2x + a_3 = 0,$$

$$a_2x^2 + 2a_3x + a_4 = 0.$$

Hence the condition

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \end{vmatrix} = J = 0.$$

6. Prove that the discriminant of the product of two functions is the product of their discriminants multiplied by the square of their eliminant.

This appears by applying the results of Art. 151 and the present Article; for the product of the squares of the differences of all the roots is made up of the product of the squares of the differences of the roots of each equation separately and the square of the product of the differences formed by taking each root of one equation with all the roots of the other.

158. Determination of a Root common to two Equations.—If R be the resultant of two equations

$$U \equiv a_m x^m + a_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + a_0 = 0,$$

$$V \equiv b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + b_0 = 0,$$

and a any common root, then

$$a = \frac{\frac{dR}{da_1}}{\frac{dR}{da_0}} = \frac{\frac{dR}{da_2}}{\frac{dR}{da_1}} = \frac{\frac{dR}{da_3}}{\frac{dR}{da_2}} = \&c.$$

To prove this, we first show that functions $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$ can be obtained such that $R = U\phi(x) + V\psi(x)$, namely, when U and V are multiplied by $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$, respectively, and added, all terms involving x vanish identically. Take, for example, the form of R given for two functions of the 4th and 3rd degrees, respectively, in Ex. 2, Art. 154. Multiply the second column by x , the third by x^2 , &c., and add to the first column, thus obtaining $U, xU, x^2U, V, xV, x^2V, x^3V$ for the constituents of the first column. The determinant when expanded takes then the form $U\phi(x) + V\psi(x)$, where ϕ is a quadratic function, and ψ a cubic function of x . This mode of proof can be applied to any two functions; and it will be observed in the general case that ϕ and ψ are of the degrees $n-1$ and $m-1$, respectively, the degrees of U and V being m and n . We have therefore

$$R = U\phi + V\psi;$$

whence

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dR}{da_p} &= x^p \phi + U \frac{d\phi}{da_p} + V \frac{d\psi}{da_p}, \\ \frac{dR}{da_{p+1}} &= x^{p+1} \phi + U \frac{d\phi}{da_{p+1}} + V \frac{d\psi}{da_{p+1}}; \end{aligned}$$

and when a is a common root of the equations $U=0$, and $V=0$, we have, substituting this value for x in the preceding equations,

$$a \frac{dR}{da_p} = \frac{dR}{da_{p+1}},$$

which proves the proposition.

A double root of an equation can be determined in a similar manner by differentiating the discriminant Δ .

When the equations $U=0$ and $V=0$ have two roots common, the first differential coefficients of R with regard to a_p , a_{p+1} , &c., vanish identically, and it is necessary to proceed to a second differentiation. In this case the common roots are given as the roots of the quadratic equation

$$\frac{d^2 R}{da_p^2} x^2 - 2 \frac{d^2 R}{da_p da_{p+1}} x + \frac{d^2 R}{da_{p+1}^2} = 0,$$

as is easily seen by differentiating the value of R above given, when the first member of the equation last written is found to be equal to

$$\left(\frac{d^2 \phi}{da_p^2} x^2 - 2 \frac{d^2 \phi}{da_p da_{p+1}} x + \frac{d^2 \phi}{da_{p+1}^2} \right) U + \left(\frac{d^2 \psi}{da_p^2} x^2 - 2 \frac{d^2 \psi}{da_p da_{p+1}} x + \frac{d^2 \psi}{da_{p+1}^2} \right) V,$$

an expression which vanishes when either of the common roots is substituted for x .

A similar process will apply if there are three or more common roots.

The examples which follow are given to illustrate the principles contained in the foregoing chapter.

EXAMPLES.

1. Eliminate x from the equations

$$\begin{aligned} ax^2 + bx + c &= 0, \\ x^3 &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying the first equation by x , we have, since $x^3 = 1$,

$$bx^2 + cx + a = 0;$$

and multiplying again by x , we have

$$cx^2 + ax + b = 0.$$

Eliminating x^2 and x linearly from these three equations, the result is expressed as a determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & c & a \\ c & a & b \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

If the method of symmetric functions (Art. 151) be employed, and the roots of the second equation substituted in the first, the resultant is obtained in the form

$$(a + b + c)(a\omega^2 + b\omega + c)(a\omega + b\omega^2 + c).$$

2. Eliminate similarly x from the equations

$$ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e = 0, \quad x^5 = 1.$$

The result is a circulant of the fifth order, obtained by a process similar to that of the last example. By aid of the method of symmetric functions the five factors can be written down. An analogous process may be applied in general to any two equations of this kind.

3. Apply the method of Art. 153 to find the conditions that the two cubics

$$\phi(x) \equiv ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d = 0,$$

$$\psi(x) \equiv a'x^3 + b'x^2 + c'x + d' = 0$$

should have two common roots.

When this is the case, identical results must be obtained by multiplying $\phi(x)$ by the third factor of $\psi(x)$, and $\psi(x)$ by the third factor of $\phi(x)$. We have, therefore,

$$(\lambda'x + \mu')\phi(x) \equiv (\lambda x + \mu)\psi(x),$$

where $\lambda, \mu, \lambda', \mu'$ are indeterminate quantities. This identity leads to the equations

$$\lambda'a - \lambda a' = 0,$$

$$\lambda'b + \mu'a - \lambda b' - \mu a' = 0,$$

$$\lambda'c + \mu'b - \lambda c' - \mu b' = 0,$$

$$\lambda'd + \mu'c - \lambda d' - \mu c' = 0,$$

$$\mu'd - \mu d' = 0.$$

Eliminating $\lambda', \mu', \lambda, \mu$ from every four of these, we obtain five determinants, whose vanishing expresses the required conditions. There is a convenient notation in use to express the result of eliminating from a number of equations of this kind. In the present instance the vanishing of the five determinants is expressed as follows:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c & d & 0 \\ 0 & a & b & c & d \\ a' & b' & c' & d' & 0 \\ 0 & a' & b' & c' & d' \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

the determinants being formed by omitting each column in turn. It should be observed that the conditions here obtained are equivalent to two independent conditions only, and it can be shown that, when any two of the determinants vanish, the remaining three must vanish also.

4. Prove the identity

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha^2 & 2\alpha\beta & \beta^2 \\ \alpha\alpha' & \alpha\beta' + \alpha'\beta & \beta\beta' \\ \alpha'^2 & 2\alpha'\beta' & \beta'^2 \end{vmatrix} = (\alpha\beta' - \alpha'\beta)^3.$$

This appears by eliminating x and y from the equations

$$\alpha x + \beta y = 0, \quad \alpha' x + \beta' y = 0;$$

for from these equations we derive

$$(\alpha x + \beta y)^2 = 0, \quad (\alpha x + \beta y)(\alpha' x + \beta' y) = 0, \quad (\alpha' x + \beta' y)^2 = 0.$$

The determinant above written is the result of eliminating x^2 , xy , and y^2 from the latter equations; and this result must be a power of the determinant derived by eliminating x , y from the linear equations.

5. Prove similarly

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha^3 & 3\alpha^2\beta & 3\alpha\beta^2 & \beta^3 \\ \alpha^2\alpha' & \alpha^2\beta' + 2\alpha\alpha'\beta & 2\alpha\beta\beta' + \alpha'\beta^2 & \beta^2\beta' \\ \alpha\alpha'^2 & \alpha'^2\beta + 2\alpha\alpha'\beta' & 2\alpha'\beta\beta' + \alpha\beta'^2 & \beta\beta'^2 \\ \alpha'^3 & 3\alpha'^2\beta' & 3\alpha'\beta'^2 & \beta'^3 \end{vmatrix} = (\alpha\beta' - \alpha'\beta)^6.$$

6. Prove the result of Ex. 13, p. 55, by eliminating λ , μ , λ' , μ' , from four equations

$$\alpha' = \frac{\lambda\alpha + \mu}{\lambda'\alpha + \mu'}, \quad \beta' = \frac{\lambda\beta + \mu}{\lambda'\beta + \mu'}, \quad \&c.$$

connecting the variables in homographic transformation.

7. Given

$$\begin{aligned} U &\equiv \mathcal{A}u^2 + 2Buv + Cv^2, \\ V &\equiv \mathcal{A}'u^2 + 2B'uv + C'v^2, \\ u &\equiv ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2, \\ v &\equiv a'x^2 + 2b'xy + c'y^2, \end{aligned}$$

determine the resultant of U and V considered as functions of x , y .

Since

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \mathcal{A}(u - \alpha v)(u - \beta v), \\ V &= \mathcal{A}'(u - \alpha'v)(u - \beta'v), \end{aligned}$$

if U and V vanish for common values of x , y , some pair of factors, as $u - \alpha v$ and $u - \alpha'v$, must vanish; whence forming the resultant of $u - \alpha v$ and $u - \alpha'v$ and representing the resultant of u and v by $R(u, v)$, we have

$$R(u - \alpha v, u - \alpha'v) = (\alpha - \alpha')^2 R(u, v);$$

and multiplying all these resultants together, we find

$$R(U, V) = \mathcal{A}^4 \mathcal{A}'^4 (\alpha - \alpha')^2 (\beta - \beta')^2 (\alpha - \beta')^2 (\beta - \alpha')^2 \{R(u, v)\}^4,$$

or

$$R(U, V) = \{R(U, V)\}^2 \{R(u, v)\}^4.$$

8. Prove that the equation whose roots are the differences of the roots of a given equation $f(x) = 0$ may be obtained by eliminating x from the equations

$$f(x) = 0, \quad f'(x) + f''(x) \frac{y}{1 \cdot 2} + f'''(x) \frac{y^2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \&c. = 0;$$

and determine the degree of the equation in y (cf. Art. 44).

9. Eliminate x, y, z from the equations

$$\begin{aligned} x + y + z &= 0, \\ ayz + bzx + cxy &= 0, \\ ay^3z^3 + bx^3y^3 + cx^3z^3 &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Taking the first two equations along with an assumed linear equation with arbitrary coefficients, viz.,

$$\lambda x + \mu y + \nu z = 0,$$

and eliminating x, y, z , we easily obtain

$$a\lambda^2 + b\mu^2 + c\nu^2 + (a - b - c)\mu\nu + (b - c - a)\nu\lambda + (c - a - b)\lambda\mu = 0, \quad (1)$$

which must be equivalent to the equation

$$(\lambda x_1 + \mu y_1 + \nu z_1)(\lambda x_2 + \mu y_2 + \nu z_2) = 0, \quad (2)$$

where $x_1, y_1, z_1, x_2, y_2, z_2$ are the two systems of values of x, y, z common to the first two of the given equations. Substituting these values in the third of the given equations, we have

$$R = (ay_1^3z_1^3 + bz_1^3x_1^3 + cx_1^3y_1^3)(ay_2^3z_2^3 + bz_2^3x_2^3 + cx_2^3y_2^3);$$

and reducing this value of R by means of the symmetric functions determined by the comparison of the equations (1) and (2), we find

$$4R = 4p^2q + q^2 + 27pr,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} p &= a^2 + b^2 + c^2 - 2bc - 2ca - 2ab, \\ q &= abc(a + b + c), \\ r &= a^2b^2c^2. \end{aligned}$$

10. If U, V, W are three given functions of x of the degrees $m, n, m + n - 1$, respectively, prove that an identical relation exists of the form

$$RW = U\phi(x) + V\psi(x),$$

where $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$ are functions to be determined, of the degrees $n - 1$ and $m - 1$, respectively, and R is the resultant of U and V .

11. Verify the results of Art. 158 by differentiating the value of R given in Art. 151.

CHAPTER XV.

CALCULATION OF SYMMETRIC FUNCTIONS. SEMINVARIANTS AND SEMICOVARIANTS.

159. **Waring's General Expressions for s_m and p_m .**—The most fundamental properties of symmetric functions of the roots of equations have been already discussed (Arts. 27, 28, and Chap. VIII., Vol. I.). In the present chapter we add some miscellaneous propositions which may often be used with advantage in the calculation of symmetric functions. The general expressions, due to Waring, referred to in Art. 80, will first be given:—

(1) *General expression for s_m in terms of the coefficients p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n of an equation of the n^{th} degree.*

We have

$$\begin{aligned} -\log_e(1 + p_1y + \dots + p_ny^n) &= \sum_{r=1}^{r=\infty} \frac{(-1)^r}{r} (p_1y + p_2y^2 + \dots + p_ny^n)^r \\ &= s_1y + \frac{1}{2}s_2y^2 + \frac{1}{3}s_3y^3 + \dots + \frac{1}{m}s_my^m + \dots \quad (\text{Art. 79}). \end{aligned}$$

Now, making use of the known form of the coefficient of y^m in the expansion of $(p_1y + p_2y^2 + \dots + p_ny^n)^r$ by the multinomial theorem, and comparing coefficients of y^m in the above equation, we find

$$s_m = \sum \frac{(-1)^r m \Gamma(r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_n)}{\Gamma(r_1 + 1) \Gamma(r_2 + 1) \dots \Gamma(r_n + 1)} p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \dots p_n^{r_n},$$

in which

$$r_1 + r_2 + r_3 + \dots + r_n = r,$$

$$r_1 + 2r_2 + 3r_3 + \dots + nr_n = m;$$

and $r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_n$ are to be given all positive integer values,

zero included, which satisfy the last of these two equations. Also, representing by r_i any of these integers,

$$\Gamma(r_i + 1) = 1.2.3 \dots r_i,$$

with the assumption that $\Gamma(1) = 1$ when $r_i = 0$.

(2) *General expression for any coefficient p_m in terms of the sums of the powers of the roots $s_1, s_2, \dots s_m$.*

We have

$$1 + p_1 y + \dots + p_m y^m + \dots + p_n y^n = e^{-y s_1} \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{2} y^2 s_2} \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{3} y^3 s_3} \dots \quad (\text{Art. 80}).$$

When the factors on the right-hand side of this equation are developed, and the coefficients of y^m on both sides compared, we find, employing the notation of the last example,

$$p_m = \sum \frac{(-1)^{r_1+r_2+\dots+r_m} s_1^{r_1} s_2^{r_2} \dots s_m^{r_m}}{\Gamma(r_1+1) \Gamma(r_2+1) \dots \Gamma(r_m+1) 2^{r_2} 3^{r_3} \dots m^{r_m}},$$

in which $r_1, r_2, \dots r_m$ are to be given all positive values, zero included, which satisfy the equation

$$r_1 + 2r_2 + 3r_3 + \dots + mr_m = m.$$

160. Symmetric Functions of the Roots of two Equations.—If it be required to calculate a symmetric function involving the roots $a_1, a_2, a_3 \dots a_m$ of the equation

$$\phi(x) = a_0 x^m + a_1 x^{m-1} + a_2 x^{m-2} + \dots + a_m = 0, \quad (1)$$

along with the roots $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots \beta_n$, of the equation

$$\psi(y) = b_0 y^n + b_1 y^{n-1} + b_2 y^{n-2} + \dots + b_n = 0, \quad (2)$$

we proceed as follows:—

Assume a new variable t connected with x and y by the equation

$$t = \lambda x + \mu y;$$

and let y be eliminated by means of this equation from (2). The result is an equation of the n^{th} degree in x whose coefficients involve λ, μ , and t in the n^{th} power. Now let x be eliminated

by any of the preceding methods from this equation and (1). We obtain an equation of the mn^{th} degree in t , whose roots are the mn values of the expression $\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta$.

If, now, it be required to calculate in terms of the coefficients of $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(y)$ any symmetric function such as $\Sigma\alpha^p\beta^q$, we form the sum of the $(p+q)^{th}$ powers of the roots of the equation in t . We thus find the value of $\Sigma(\lambda\alpha + \mu\beta)^{p+q}$ expressed in terms of the original coefficients and the several powers of λ and μ . The coefficient of $\lambda^p\mu^q$ in this expression will furnish the required value of $\Sigma\alpha^p\beta^q$ in terms of the coefficients of $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(y)$.

If it were required to calculate symmetric functions of the roots of three equations, we should assume

$$t = \lambda x + \mu y + \nu z,$$

eliminate x, y, z , and proceed as before. This method therefore applies whatever the number of equations; and by making the coefficients $a_r = b_r = c_r$, &c., we fall back on the symmetric functions of the roots of a single equation already calculated.

161. Calculation by Sums of Powers of Roots.—By aid of the following differential equation, connecting a function of the coefficients and its value in terms of the sums of the powers, symmetric functions can often be calculated with great facility:—

$$\frac{d}{ds_r} F(p_1, p_2, \dots p_n) = -\frac{1}{r} \left(\frac{dF}{dp_r} + p_1 \frac{dF}{dp_{r+1}} + \dots + p_{n-r} \frac{dF}{dp_n} \right).$$

To prove this equation, we take the equation (1) of Art. 80, and differentiate it with regard to s_r . Comparing coefficients of the different powers of y , we have

$$\frac{dp_q}{ds_r} = 0, \text{ when } q < r; \quad \frac{dp_r}{ds_r} = -\frac{1}{r}; \quad \frac{dp_{r+k}}{ds_r} = -\frac{1}{r} p_k;$$

and substituting these values in

$$\frac{d}{ds_r} F(p_1, p_2, \dots p_n) = \frac{dF}{dp_1} \frac{dp_1}{ds_r} + \frac{dF}{dp_2} \frac{dp_2}{ds_r} + \dots + \frac{dF}{dp_n} \frac{dp_n}{ds_r},$$

we have at once the equation above written.

EXAMPLES.

1. Calculate the value of the symmetric function $\Sigma a_1^2 a_2^2 a_3^2 a_4^2$ of the roots of the equation

$$x^n + p_1 x^{n-1} + p_2 x^{n-2} + \dots + p_n = 0.$$

Knowing the order and weight of any symmetric function, we can write down the literal part of its value in terms of the coefficients. Here Σ is of the second order and its weight is eight; hence

$$\Sigma = t_0 p_8 + t_1 p_7 p_1 + t_2 p_6 p_2 + t_3 p_5 p_3 + t_4 p_4^2,$$

where t_0, t_1, t_2 , &c., are numerical coefficients to be determined.

Terms such as $p_6 p_1^2, p_5 p_1 p_2, p_5 p_1^3$, &c., although of the right weight, are of too high an order, and therefore cannot enter into the expression for Σ . Again, Σ expressed in terms of the sums of the powers of the roots is of the form $F(s_2, s_4, s_6, s_8)$; for, in general, $\Sigma a_1^p a_2^q a_3^r \dots$, when so expressed, is made up of terms such as $s_p, s_{p+q}, s_{p+q+r}, \dots s_{kp}, \dots$ all of which are sums of even powers when p, q, r, \dots are even; therefore in this case none but even sums of powers enter into the expression for Σ .

Also, since $\frac{d\Sigma}{ds_3} = 0$, and $\frac{d\Sigma}{ds_7} = 0$, we have, using the formula above given for $\frac{dF}{ds_r}$,

$$t_0 p_5 + t_1 p_1 p_4 + t_2 p_3 p_2 + t_3 (p_2 p_3 + p_5) + 2t_4 p_1 p_4 = 0,$$

$$t_0 p_1 + t_1 p_1 = 0.$$

From these equations we infer

$$t_0 + t_1 = 0, \quad t_2 + t_3 = 0, \quad t_3 + t_0 = 0, \quad t_1 + 2t_4 = 0;$$

but $t_4 = 1$, since for a quartic $\Sigma = p_4^2$; therefore

$$t_1 = -2, \quad t_0 = 2, \quad t_3 = -2, \quad t_2 = 2;$$

and, substituting these values of t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4 ,

$$\Sigma a_1^2 a_2^2 a_3^2 a_4^2 = 2p_8 - 2p_7 p_1 + 2p_6 p_2 - 2p_5 p_3 + p_4^2.$$

2. Calculate $\Sigma a_1^2 a_2^2 a_3^2$ for the same equation.

$$\text{Ans.} -2p_6 + 2p_1 p_5 - 2p_2 p_4 + p_3^2. \quad (\text{Cf. Ex. 6, Art. 82.})$$

3. Calculate for the same equation the symmetric function $\Sigma a_1^3 a_2^2 a_3$.

Here the weight is six, and the order three; hence

$$\Sigma a_1^3 a_2^2 a_3 = t_0 p_6 + t_1 p_5 p_1 + t_2 p_4 p_2 + t_3 p_4 p_1^2 + t_4 p_3^2 + t_5 p_1 p_2 p_3 + t_6 p_2^3.$$

Also Σ , expressed in terms of s_1, s_2, s_3 , &c., is (Art. 78)

$$s_1 s_2 s_3 - s_1 s_5 - s_3^2 - s_2 s_4 + 2s_6.$$

Now, differentiating these two values of Σ with regard to s_6 , and comparing differential coefficients, we have

$$t_0 \frac{dp_6}{ds_6} = -\frac{t_0}{6} = 2, \quad \text{or} \quad t_0 = -12.$$

Differentiating with regard to s_5 , we have

$$t_0 p_1 + t_1 p_1 = 5s_1 = -5p_1; \quad \therefore t_1 = 7.$$

Differentiating with regard to s_4 ,

$$t_0 p_2 + t_1 p_1^2 + t_2 p_2 + t_3 p_1^2 = 4s_2 = 4(p_1^2 - 2p_2);$$

whence

$$t_0 + t_2 = -8, \quad t_1 + t_3 = 4;$$

and

$$t_3 = -3, \quad t_2 = 4.$$

Again, $t_6 = 0$; for Σ vanishes if $n - 2$ roots vanish. And we find t_4 and t_5 by taking the particular case when $n - 3$ roots vanish; for in this case

$$\Sigma a_1^3 a_2^2 a_3 = a_1 a_2 a_3 \Sigma a_1^2 a_2 = -p_3 (-p_1 p_2 + 3p_3) = p_1 p_2 p_3 - 3p_3^2,$$

and therefore $t_4 = -3$, $t_5 = 1$; whence, finally,

$$\Sigma a_1^3 a_2^2 a_3 = -12p_6 + 7p_1 p_5 + 4p_4 p_2 - 3p_4 p_1^2 - 3p_3^2 + p_1 p_2 p_3.$$

162. Functions of Differences of a Cubic.—The propositions contained in this and the next following Articles are most useful in the calculation of certain classes of symmetric functions of the roots of cubic and biquadratic equations; they are also of great importance, as will appear in the sequel, in reference to the determination of the number of independent invariants and covariants of these forms.

PROP. I.—*Every rational and integral symmetric function $\phi(a, \beta, \gamma)$ of the roots of the equation*

$$a_0 x^3 + 3a_1 x^2 + 3a_2 x + a_3 = 0$$

which involves the differences only of these roots is, when multiplied by a_0^ω , expressible in the form $F(a_0, H, \Delta)$, or $GF(a_0, H, \Delta)$, according as ϕ is an even or odd function of the roots, F being a rational and integral function of a_0, H, Δ , and ω being the order of ϕ .

It is first necessary to prove the following Lemma:—*There exists no function of H and Δ which is divisible by a_0 .* For if there were any such function $F_p(H, \Delta)$, then, making a_0 vanish, we should have

$$F_p(H', \Delta') = 0, \quad \text{where } H' = -a_1^2, \quad \Delta' = 4a_1^3 a_3 - 3a_1^2 a_2^2,$$

the values of H and Δ when a_0 vanishes (Art. 42). This equation is clearly impossible; for if we eliminate a_1 by means of the equation $H' = -a_1^2$, the resulting equation will contain a_2 and a_3 as well as H' and Δ' .

To proceed with the proof of the Proposition:—Since ϕ is a function of the differences, we can suppose it to be calculated from the cubic deprived of its second term (Art. 36). We have therefore

$$a_0^r \phi(a, \beta, \gamma) = F(a_0, H, G),$$

in which F is a rational integral function, and r , which cannot be less than ϖ (Art. 81), remains to be determined. Arranging the right-hand side according to powers of G , we may write

$$a_0^r \phi(a, \beta, \gamma) = F_0(a_0, H) + GF_1(a_0, H) + G^2F_2(a_0, H) + \dots$$

Since the weight of H is even, it follows that when ϕ is an even function of the roots (*i.e.* its weight even), all terms involving odd powers of G must disappear, and when ϕ is an odd function, F_0 and all terms involving even powers of G must disappear. Taking out G as a factor in the latter case, and eliminating even powers of G by means of the relation

$$G^2 + 4H^3 = a_0^2 \Delta, \quad (\text{Art. 42})$$

we have proved that $a_0^r \phi$ is expressible in the form $F(a_0, H, \Delta)$, or $GF(a_0, H, \Delta)$, according as ϕ is even or odd.

It appears therefore that every odd function of the roots of the kind here considered must have as a factor

$$(2\alpha - \beta - \gamma)(2\beta - \gamma - \alpha)(2\gamma - \alpha - \beta). \quad (\text{Ex. 15, Art. 27.})$$

We can suppose this factor removed from ϕ , with the corresponding value in terms of the coefficients from the second side of the equation; and it only remains to determine the value of r in the case of an even function of the roots. Writing the relation in the form

$$a_0^r \phi(a, \beta, \gamma) = F(a_0, H, \Delta),$$

arranging the right-hand side according to powers of a_0 , and dividing by $a_0^{r-\varpi}$, we have

$$a_0^\varpi \phi(a, \beta, \gamma) = F_0(a_0, H, \Delta) + \Sigma \frac{F_p(H, \Delta)}{a_0^p},$$

where F_0 is an integral function of a_0, H, Δ , and Σ contains all

the fractional terms. Now, ϕ being a symmetric function whose order is ϖ , $a_0^\varpi \phi$ is expressible as an integral function of the coefficients (Art. 81); and since, by the lemma above established, none of the terms included in Σ can become integral, the fractional part must disappear, and the equation assumes the form

$$a_0^\varpi \phi(a, \beta, \gamma) = (F_0, H, \Delta).$$

The proposition is therefore proved.

163. Functions of Differences of a Biquadratic.—

The corresponding proposition for a biquadratic is as follows:—

PROP. II.—*Every rational and integral symmetric function $\phi(a, \beta, \gamma, \delta)$ of the roots of the equation*

$$a_0 x^4 + 4a_1 x^3 + 6a_2 x^2 + 4a_3 x + a_4 = 0,$$

which involves the differences only of the roots, is, when multiplied by a_0^ϖ , expressible in the form $F(a_0, H, I, J)$ or $GF(a_0, H, I, J)$ according as ϕ is an even or odd function of the roots, F being a rational and integral function of a_0, H, I, J , and ϖ the order of ϕ .

The following lemma must first be proved:—*There exists no function of H, I, J which is divisible by a_0 .* For, suppose if possible $F_p(H, I, J)$ to be such a function. Making a_0 vanish, we have $F_p(H', I', J') = 0$, where $H' = -a_1^2$, $I' = -4a_1a_3 + 3a_2^2$, $J' = 2a_1a_2a_3 - a_4a_1^2 - a_2^3$ (the values of H, I, J , when $a_0 = 0$); but no such relation can exist, since it is impossible to eliminate a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 , so as to obtain a relation between H', I', J' alone.

Now since, as in the preceding Article, ϕ is a function of the differences of the roots, we can suppose it calculated from the equation deprived of its second term (Art. 37). We have therefore

$$a_0^r \phi(a, \beta, \gamma, \delta) = F(a_0, H, I, G),$$

in which F is a rational and integral function, and r remains to be determined. Proceeding as before,

$$a_0^r \phi(a, \beta, \gamma, \delta) = F_0(a_0, H, I) + GF_1(a_0, H, I) + G^2F_2(a_0, H, I) + \dots$$

Since the weight is even in the case of both the functions H and I , we infer, just as in the preceding Article, that G is a factor in the odd functions; and, eliminating even functions of G by the relation

$$G^2 = a_0^2 (HI - a_0 J) - 4H^3, \quad (\text{Art. 37})$$

we prove that $a_0^r \phi$ is expressible in the form $F(a_0, H, I, J)$ or $GF(a_0, H, I, J)$ according as ϕ is even or odd. It appears, therefore, that every odd function of the roots of the kind here considered contains the factor

$$(\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta)(\gamma + \alpha - \beta - \delta)(\alpha + \beta - \gamma - \delta). \\ (\text{Ex. 20, Art. 27.})$$

Removing this factor, we proceed to determine r in the case of an even function. Writing the relation in the form

$$a_0^r \phi(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta) = F(a_0, H, I, J),$$

and dividing by $a_0^{r-\pi}$, we have, as in the preceding Article,

$$a_0^\pi \phi(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta) = F_0(a_0, H, I, J) + \Sigma \frac{F_p(H, I, J)}{a_0^p}.$$

Now since the right-hand side must be an integral function of the coefficients (Art. 81), and since, by the lemma above established, none of the terms included in Σ can become integral, we have

$$a_0^\pi \phi(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta) = F_0(a_0, H, I, J),$$

which proves the proposition.

Instances of the use of this proposition in the calculation of symmetric functions of the roots of a biquadratic will be found among the examples at the end of the chapter.

164. Seminvariants and Semicovariants. — Let $a_1, a_2, a_3 \dots a_n$ be the roots of

$$a_0 x^n + n a_1 x^{n-1} + \frac{n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2} a_2 x^{n-2} + \dots + a_n = 0,$$

the general equation written with binomial coefficients. We proceed to the consideration of an important class of functions

of x which may be derived from a given symmetric function of the roots.

In the two preceding Articles we have been occupied with certain special kinds of homogeneous symmetric functions of the roots which contain the *differences only* of these quantities (cf. Art. 36). Such functions may be called (for a reason which will appear in a subsequent chapter) *semi-invariants*, or, as it is usually written, *seminvariants*. Being symmetric functions of the roots, they are expressible (when multiplied by a power of a_0) in a rational and integral form in terms of the coefficients.

We may use in like manner the term *semicovariants* to denote similar functions of the differences of the quantities x, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , such that, when they are arranged in powers of x , the successive coefficients of x are expressible in a similar manner in terms of the coefficients.

We proceed now to show how semicovariants may be generated, and then expanded in powers of x , when expressed either in terms of the roots or in terms of the coefficients.

From any relation such as

$$a_0^\varpi \phi(a_1, a_2 \dots a_n) = F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n),$$

where ϕ is an integral function of the order ϖ , and F the corresponding expression in terms of the coefficients, we may, by diminishing each of the roots by x , and consequently changing any coefficient a_r into U_r (see Art. 35), derive the following equation:—

$$a_0^\varpi \phi(a_1 - x, a_2 - x, \dots a_n - x) = F(U_0, U_1, U_2, \dots U_n), \quad (1)$$

thus obtaining two forms for a semicovariant, one expressed in terms of the roots, and the other in terms of the coefficients.

To expand these forms in powers of x , we have, for the first member of the equation, by Taylor's theorem,

$$\phi(a_1 - x, a_2 - x, \dots a_n - x) = \phi_0 + x \delta \phi_0 + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} \delta^2 \phi_0 + \dots \quad (2)$$

where

$$\phi_0 \equiv \phi(a_1, a_2, \dots a_n),$$

and

$$-\delta \equiv \frac{d}{da_1} + \frac{d}{da_2} + \dots + \frac{d}{da_n}.$$

Again, omitting all powers of x higher than the first, the second member of the equation becomes

$$F(a_0, a_1 + a_0x, a_2 + 2a_1x, \dots a_n + na_{n-1}x),$$

or, when expanded,

$$F_0 + xDF_0 + \&c.,$$

where

$$F_0 \equiv F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n),$$

and

$$D \equiv a_0 \frac{d}{da_1} + 2a_1 \frac{d}{da_2} + 3a_2 \frac{d}{da_3} + \dots + na_{n-1} \frac{d}{da_n}.$$

Comparing the two expanded forms, we have

$$a_0^{\omega} \delta \phi(a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) = DF(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n),$$

and consequently, by successive applications of the operators δ and D ,

$$a_0^{\omega} \delta^r \phi(a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) = D^r F(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n);$$

whence we infer from the expansion (2)

$$F(U_0, U_1, \dots U_n) = F_0 + xDF_0 + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} D^2 F_0 + \&c. \dots$$

By the aid, therefore, of the two operators— δ in terms of the roots, and D in terms of the coefficients—we can expand at pleasure either side of the equation (1) in powers of x . By means of the successive operations of δ we obtain a series of functions of the roots; and, by means of D , their equivalent values in terms of the coefficients.

The results now arrived at are equally true if the function ϕ involves the roots of two or more equations, F being the corresponding value in terms of the coefficients of these equations, and D and δ being replaced by the sums of the similar operators relative to each equation.

It is important to observe that when $\delta\phi_0$ vanishes identically, so also

$$\delta(\delta\phi_0) \text{ or } \delta^2\phi_0 = 0, \quad \delta^3\phi_0 = 0, \text{ \&c.,}$$

and therefore x disappears in the expansion of the first member of equation (1). Now this can happen only when ϕ is a function of the differences of $a_1, a_2, \dots a_n$; whence we conclude that if $F(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)$ is a seminvariant

$$DF(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) = 0.$$

This identical relation is often sufficient to determine the numerical coefficients in a seminvariant when the order and weight are known. If there should be two or more seminvariants of the same order and weight, the operation of D will not supply equations enough to determine all the assumed coefficients, as will appear from the discussion in the next Article. If no seminvariant exists of the required order and weight, the coefficients will all vanish.

165. Determination of Seminvariants.—The problem of finding the seminvariants of a given order ϖ and weight κ of a quantic is the same as that of determining all such solutions of the differential equation

$$D\Phi = a_0 \frac{d\Phi}{da_1} + 2a_1 \frac{d\Phi}{da_2} + \dots + na_{n-1} \frac{d\Phi}{da_n} = 0. \quad (1)$$

To solve this equation when possible, assume

$$\Phi = \lambda_1\phi_1 + \lambda_2\phi_2 + \dots + \lambda_r\phi_r, \quad (2)$$

where $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots \phi_r$ are all the possible combinations of $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n$ of the order ϖ and weight κ , and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots \lambda_r$ arbitrary multipliers.

Now, substituting this value of Φ in the equation $D\Phi = 0$, we have as the result

$$L_1\psi_1 + L_2\psi_2 + \dots + L_p\psi_p = 0,$$

where $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots \psi_p$ are all the distinct terms of the order ϖ and weight $\kappa - 1$, and $L_1, L_2, \dots L_p$ are linear functions of $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots \lambda_p$, which must all vanish when Φ is a seminvariant.

EXAMPLES.

1. Determine for a cubic a seminvariant whose order and weight are both three.

Assume
$$\phi = Aa_0^2a_3 + Ba_0a_1a_2' + Ca_1^3,$$

these being the only three terms which satisfy the required conditions. It is evident from the form of D that the operation is performed by applying to the suffix of any coefficient a , the same process as in ordinary differentiation is applied to the index. Thus $Da_r = ra_{r-1}$, and therefore

$$D\phi = (3A + B)a_0^2a_2 + (2B + 3C)a_1^2a_0 = 0.$$

Hence

$$3A + B = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad 2B + 3C = 0;$$

and putting $A = 1$, we have $B = -3$, and $C = 2$: whence, finally,

$$\phi = a_0^2a_3 - 3a_0a_1a_2 + 2a_1^3 = G. \quad (\text{See Art. 36.})$$

For a quadratic no such seminvariant can be formed.

2. Investigate seminvariants of a quartic whose order and weight are both four.

Assuming

$$\phi = Aa_0^3a_4 + Ba_0^2a_1a_3 + Ca_0^2a_2^2 + Da_0a_1^2a_2 + Ea_1^4,$$

we readily find

$$D\phi = (4A + B)a_0^3a_3 + (3B + 4C + 2D)a_0^2a_1a_2 + (2D + 4E)a_0a_1^3.$$

We have now only three equations among the assumed five coefficients, whose ratios cannot consequently be determined completely. Expressing B , C , and D in terms of A and E , we have easily

$$\phi = Aa_0^2(a_0a_4 - 4a_1a_3 + 3a_2^2) + E(a_0^2a_2^2 - 2a_0a_1^2a_2 + a_1^4),$$

viz.,

$$\phi = Aa_0^2I + EH^2.$$

where A and E may have any values. We may say therefore that there are in this case two independent fundamental seminvariants of the required order and weight, viz., a_0^2I and H^2 ; and from these may be derived an indefinite number of seminvariants of the same order and weight by assigning to A and E different numerical values.

3. Determine for a cubic a seminvariant whose order is four and weight six.

Assume

$$\phi = Aa_0^2a_3^2 + Ba_0a_2^3 + Ca_3a_1^3 + Da_1^2a_2^2 + Ea_0a_1a_2a_3,$$

whence

$$D\phi = (6A + E)a_0^2a_2a_3 + (6B + 3E + 2D)a_0a_1a_2^2 + (3C + 4D)a_1^3a_2 + (3C + 2E)a_0a_1^2a_3 = 0.$$

Now let $A = 1$, whence $E = -6$; also $3C + 2E = 0$, giving $C = 4$; and $3C + 4D = 0$, giving $D = -3$; and from $6B + 3E + 2D = 0$, we have finally $B = 4$.

Hence $\phi = a_0^2 a_3^2 + 4a_0 a_2^3 + 4a_3 a_1^3 - 3a_1^2 a_2^2 - 6a_0 a_1 a_2 a_3$.

Compare Art. 42, where the value of ϕ is given in terms of the roots.

4. Determine a seminvariant of a quintic whose order is three and weight five.

It is easily seen that the only terms of the required order and weight are $a_0^2 a_5$, $a_0 a_1 a_4$, $a_0 a_2 a_3$, $a_1^2 a_3$, and $a_1 a_2^2$. Proceeding as before we find that the ratios of the assumed coefficients are determinate, and the seminvariant is found to be

$$a_0^2 a_5 - 5a_0 a_1 a_4 + 2a_0 a_2 a_3 - 6a_1 a_2^2 + 8a_1^2 a_3.$$

5. Determine for a quartic a seminvariant whose order is three and weight six.

$$\text{Ans. } a_0 a_2 a_4 + 2a_1 a_2 a_3 - a_0 a_3^2 - a_1^2 a_4 - a_2^3 = J.$$

6. Investigate for the general equation the seminvariants whose order is three and weight six.

It is easily seen that the only terms which can enter into such seminvariants additional to those which occur in the preceding example are $a_0^2 a_6$ and $a_0 a_1 a_5$. Writing down the function ϕ consisting of seven terms with indeterminate coefficients, and applying the operator D , we find that there are only five equations among the assumed coefficients. We obtain therefore, as is easily seen, seminvariants of the form

$$\lambda a_0 (a_0 a_6 - 6a_1 a_5 + 15a_2 a_4 - 10a_3^2) + \mu J,$$

in which λ and μ remain undetermined, their multipliers in this expression being two fundamental seminvariants of the required type.

It may be observed that $a_0 a_6 - 6a_1 a_5 + 15a_2 a_4 - 10a_3^2$ is an invariant of a sextic. This function can be readily found directly by investigating seminvariants whose order is two and weight six. Invariants being, as well as seminvariants, symmetric functions of the roots which contain the differences only are obtained by the present method of investigation; and any function of the coefficients so obtained which is an invariant for a quantic of one particular order will be a seminvariant for quantics (written with binomial coefficients) of all higher orders. The function obtained in Ex. 3 is an invariant of a cubic, and J is an invariant of a quartic. It must be carefully noted, however, that most seminvariants, as *e.g.* those obtained in Exs. 1, 4, are not invariants for quantics of any degree, as will be seen from the definition of an invariant and its properties discussed in the next chapter.

7. Investigate for a quartic seminvariants of order four and weight six.

The only terms additional to those of Ex. 3 are $a_0^2 a_2 a_4$ and $a_0 a_4 a_1^2$. Adding therefore $\lambda a_0^2 a_2 a_4 + \mu a_0 a_4 a_1^2$ to the value of ϕ in Ex. 3, and operating by D , we find, after expressing the remaining coefficients in terms of λ and \mathcal{A} , the following value of ϕ ,

$$\phi = \lambda (a_0^2 a_2 a_4 - a_0 a_4 a_1^2 + 3a_0 a_2^3 + 4a_3 a_1^3 - 3a_1^2 a_2^2 - 4a_0 a_1 a_2 a_3) + \mathcal{A} \Delta_3,$$

where Δ_3 is the function obtained in Ex. 3, viz. the discriminant of the cubic.

Observing that the multiplier of λ is the product of the functions H and I , and substituting for Δ_3 its value $HI - a_0J$ (Art. 42), we have

$$\phi = \lambda'HI + \mu'a_0J.$$

For a quartic, therefore, the functions HI and a_0J are two fundamental seminvariants of the required order and weight.

8. Investigate seminvariants of the same order and weight as in Ex. 7 for quantics of the sixth and higher orders.

It will be found that there are in this case two equations less than would be required to determine the ratios of the assumed coefficients, and there will consequently be three fundamental seminvariants. It may be easily shown that all seminvariants of the required type can be represented in the form

$$\phi = \lambda a_0^2 (a_0a_6 - 6a_1a_5 + 15a_2a_4 - 10a_3^2) + \mu HI + \nu a_0J.$$

9. Prove that any seminvariant of the equation

$$(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_r)(x, 1)^r = 0$$

is also a seminvariant of the equation

$$(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_r, \dots, a_n)(x, 1)^n = 0,$$

n being greater than r .

10. Determine a seminvariant of a sextic whose order is three and weight eight.

$$Ans. a_0a_2a_6 - a_0a_3a_5 + 2a_0a_4^2 - a_1^2a_6 + 3a_1a_2a_5 - a_1a_3a_4 - 3a_2^2a_4 + 2a_2a_3^2.$$

Prof. Cayley originally enunciated the important theorem which forms the subject of the foregoing Article, viz.—that the number of linearly independent seminvariants of order ω and weight κ is $r - p$, where r is the number of terms of this order and weight which can be formed from the coefficients a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n , and p the number of terms of the same order and weight $\kappa - 1$, which can be formed from the same coefficients. In the discussion above given, it is assumed that L_1, L_2, \dots, L_p are linearly independent; and it should be observed that if certain linear relations connected them, for each such relation the number p would be reduced by one. Cayley himself gave no proof of the independence in general of these quantities; but proofs have been supplied by Sylvester (*Crelle*, vol. 85, p. 89) and by Prof. Elliott (*Algebra of Quantics*, Art. 128. See also Note F at the end of this Volume).

the roots, whose order is 6 and weight 12, in terms of a_0, H, I, J . From the table—

	Order.	Weight.
H	2	2
I	2	4
J	3	6

it is easy to see that H cannot enter, for the terms of the sixth order containing H , viz. H^3, H^2I, HI^2 , have not the proper weight. Therefore Π must be of the form $lI^3 + mJ^2$, where l and m are numerical coefficients.

Now put a_3 and a_4 equal to zero, and Π will vanish, since in that case the quartic will have equal roots; hence, employing the reduced values of I and J ,

$$0 = l(3a_2^2)^3 + m(-a_2^3)^2, \text{ and therefore } m = -27l.$$

In applying this method to obtain the values of symmetric functions, the rule to be followed in every case is—Retain those terms of weight κ whose order is not greater than ϖ , and make the whole homogeneous by multiplying terms whose order is less than ϖ by suitable powers of a_0 .

5. Calculate the symmetric function of the roots of a biquadratic

$$\Sigma (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\alpha - \beta)^2.$$

Since the order of this symmetric function is four and its weight six, we may assume

$$a_0^4 \Sigma (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\alpha - \beta)^2 = lHI + ma_0J. \quad (1)$$

The values of l and m may be found by putting $a_3 = 0, a_4 = 0$, as in the preceding example, and calculating the value of the reduced symmetric function (when $\gamma = 0, \delta = 0$) in terms of the coefficients of the quadratic equation

$$a_0x^2 + 4a_1x + 6a_2 = 0.$$

Identifying then this value with the reduced value of $lHI + ma_0J$, we obtain two simple equations to determine l and m . Or we may proceed as follows by taking two biquadratics whose roots are known, and calculating in each case the symmetric function by actually substituting the roots, and then comparing both sides of the equation when H, I, J are replaced by their values calculated from the numerical coefficients.

First we take the biquadratic equation $6x^4 - 6x^2 = 0$, whose roots are 0, 0, 1, -1, whence

$$\Sigma = 8, \quad H = -6, \quad I = 3, \quad J = 1.$$

Substituting in equation (1), we have $1728 = -3l + m$.

Proceeding in the same way with the biquadratic equation

$$x^4 - 6x^2 + 5 = 0, \quad \text{whose roots are } \pm \sqrt{5}, \pm 1,$$

we find

$$\Sigma = 768, \quad H = -1, \quad I = 8, \quad J = -4;$$

whence

$$-192 = 2l + m,$$

and

$$l = -2 \times 192, \quad m = 3 \times 192;$$

and finally,

$$a_0^4 \Sigma = 192 (-2HI + 3a_0J).$$

6. If $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ be the roots of the equation

$$a_0x^4 + 4a_1x^3 + 6a_2x^2 + 4a_3x + a_4 = 0,$$

calculate in terms of a_0, H, I, J the value of the symmetric function

$$a_0^6 \Sigma (3\alpha - \beta - \gamma - \delta)^2 (3\beta - \gamma - \delta - \alpha)^2 (3\gamma - \delta - \alpha - \beta)^2.$$

This may be solved by the same method as the two preceding examples, or we may proceed as follows:—

$$a_0^6 \Sigma = 4^6 \Sigma z_1^2 z_2^2 z_3^2,$$

where z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4 are the roots of the equation

$$z^4 + 6Hz^2 + 4Gz + a_0^2I - 3H^2 = 0. \quad (\text{Art. 37.})$$

Hence, by Ex. 2, Art. 161,

$$\text{Ans. } 4^7 \{-7H^3 + a_0^2HI - 4a_0^3J\}.$$

7. If $F(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)$ is a seminvariant of the equation $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)(x, 1)^n = 0$, prove that the same function of the sums of the powers of the roots, viz. $F(s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n)$ is also a seminvariant. (MR. M. ROBERTS.)

This follows by operating on the first function by D , and on the second by $-\delta$, and observing that $Da_r = ra_{r-1}$ and $-\delta s_r = rs_{r-1}$. We thus obtain results identical in form; and if one vanishes identically, so must the other.

8. Calculate the determinant

$$\Delta \equiv \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & s_2 \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 \\ s_2 & s_3 & s_4 \end{vmatrix}$$

in terms of the coefficients of a quartic.

By the preceding example, this determinant is a function of the differences of the roots; we may therefore remove the second term of the quartic before calculating it; and if the equation so transformed be

$$y^4 + P_2y^2 + P_3y + P_4 = 0,$$

$$\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} 4 & 0 & -2P_2 \\ 0 & -2P_2 & -3P_3 \\ -2P_2 & -3P_3 & 2P_2^2 - 4P_4 \end{vmatrix} = 4 \{8P_2P_4 - 2P_2^3 - 9P_3^2\};$$

but

$$a_0^2 P_2 = 6H, \quad a_0^3 P_3 = 4G, \quad a_0^4 P_4 = a_0^2 I - 3H^2.$$

Substituting for P_2, P_3, P_4 these values, we have

$$a_0^4 \Delta = 192 (-2HI + 3a_0 J) :$$

the same result as in Ex. 5 (cf. Ex. 7, p. 35).

9. If $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ be the roots of the equation

$$a_0 x^4 + 4a_1 x^3 + 6a_2 x^2 + 4a_3 x + a_4 = 0,$$

express H, I, J, G of the equation

$$s_0 x^4 + 4s_1 x^3 + 6s_2 x^2 + 4s_3 x + s_4 = \Sigma (x + \alpha)^4 = 0$$

in terms of H, I, J, G .

$$\text{Ans. } \frac{H}{s_0^2} = -3 \frac{H}{a_0^2}, \quad \frac{I}{s_0^2} = \frac{48H^2 - a_0^2 I}{a_0^4}, \quad \frac{G}{s_0^3} = -3 \frac{G}{a_0^3};$$

and by the aid of the relations

$$G^2 + 4H^3 = a_0^2 (HI - a_0 J), \quad G_s^2 + 4H_s^3 = s_0^2 (H_s I_s - s_0 J_s),$$

$$J_s = \frac{192}{a_0^4} (3a_0 J - 2HI).$$

10. When p is even, prove that

$$\Sigma (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)^p = s_0 s_p - p s_1 s_{p-1} + \frac{1}{2} p (p-1) s_2 s_{p-2} - \&c.$$

Since

$$\Sigma (x - \alpha)^p = n x^p - p s_1 x^{p-1} + \frac{p \cdot p - 1}{2} s_2 x^{p-2} - \&c. \dots - p s_{p-1} x + s_p,$$

changing x into $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_n$, in succession, and adding the results on both sides of the equations thus obtained, we find

$$2 \Sigma (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)^p = s_0 s_p - p s_1 s_{p-1} + \frac{p \cdot p - 1}{1 \cdot 2} s_2 s_{p-2} - \dots - p s_{p-1} + s_0 s_p,$$

where all the terms on the right side of this equation are repeated except the middle term. Thus

$$\Sigma (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)^4 = s_0 s_4 - 4 s_1 s_3 + 3 s_2^2,$$

$$\Sigma (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)^6 = s_0 s_6 - 6 s_1 s_5 + 15 s_2 s_4 - 10 s_3^2, \&c.$$

11. Form the equation whose roots are $\phi'(\alpha), \phi'(\beta), \phi'(\gamma), \phi'(\delta)$, where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ are the roots of the equation

$$a_0 \phi(x) = a_0 x^4 + 4a_1 x^3 + 6a_2 x^2 + 4a_3 x + a_4 = 0.$$

$$\text{Ans. } \phi'^4 + \frac{32G}{a_0^3} \phi'^3 + \frac{96(2HI - 3a_0 J)}{a_0^4} \phi'^2 + \frac{256(I^3 - 27J^2)}{a_0^6} = 0.$$

12. If $\Sigma (\alpha - \beta)^2 (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (x - \delta)^4,$

when expanded, becomes

$$K_0 x^4 + 4K_1 x^3 + 6K_2 x^2 + 4K_3 x + K_4;$$

prove that

$$\frac{K_0 \alpha \beta \gamma + K_1 (\beta \gamma + \gamma \alpha + \alpha \beta) + K_2 (\alpha + \beta + \gamma) + K_3}{(\beta - \gamma)(\gamma - \alpha)(\alpha - \beta)} = \frac{\pm 16\sqrt{\Delta}}{a_0^3},$$

where

$$\Delta = I^3 - 27J^2.$$

13. Prove that

$$a_0^4 \Sigma (\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta)^2 (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\alpha - \delta)^2 = 192 (3a_0 J - 2HI).$$

14. Prove that

$$a_0^6 \Sigma (\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta)^4 (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\alpha - \delta)^2 = 512 (a_0^2 I^2 - 36a_0 HJ + 12H^2 I).$$

15. The quotient of a simple alternant (one, namely, in which each element is a single power) by the difference-product (see Ex. 31, p. 61) can be expressed as a determinant whose elements are the sums of the homogeneous products of the quantities involved.

We take a determinant of the third order, and propose to prove

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha^p & \alpha^q & \alpha^r \\ \beta^p & \beta^q & \beta^r \\ \gamma^p & \gamma^q & \gamma^r \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} \Pi_p & \Pi_q & \Pi_r \\ \Pi_{p-1} & \Pi_{q-1} & \Pi_{r-1} \\ \Pi_{p-2} & \Pi_{q-2} & \Pi_{r-2} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma^2 \end{vmatrix},$$

where Π_p , Π_q , &c., are the sums of the homogeneous products of α , β , γ , as defined in Art. 83, Vol. I. The method employed is perfectly general. Take the following identity, which is easily proved:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{x}{x-\alpha} & \frac{y}{y-\alpha} & \frac{z}{z-\alpha} \\ \frac{x}{x-\beta} & \frac{y}{y-\beta} & \frac{z}{z-\beta} \\ \frac{x}{x-\gamma} & \frac{y}{y-\gamma} & \frac{z}{z-\gamma} \end{vmatrix} \equiv \frac{\begin{vmatrix} x^3 & y^3 & z^3 \\ x^2 & y^2 & z^2 \\ x & y & z \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma^2 \end{vmatrix}}{(x-\alpha)(x-\beta)(x-\gamma)(y-\alpha)(y-\beta)(y-\gamma)(z-\alpha)(z-\beta)(z-\gamma)};$$

write $(x - \alpha)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma)$ as a divisor under each of the elements of the first column on the right-hand side, $(y - \alpha)(y - \beta)(y - \gamma)$ under those of the second, and $(z - \alpha)(z - \beta)(z - \gamma)$ under those of the third, and substitute from the following and similar equations (Ex. 1, Art. 83):—

$$\frac{x}{x-\alpha} = 1 + \alpha x' + \alpha^2 x'^2 + \dots + \alpha^p x'^p + \dots,$$

$$\frac{x^3}{(x-\alpha)(x-\beta)(x-\gamma)} = 1 + \Pi_1 x' + \Pi_2 x'^2 + \dots + \Pi_p x'^p + \&c.,$$

where $x' = \frac{1}{x}, \quad y' = \frac{1}{y}, \quad z' = \frac{1}{z}.$

The identity written above becomes then

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 + \alpha x' + \dots + \alpha^p x'^p + \dots, \\ 1 + \beta x' + \dots + \beta^p x'^p + \dots, \\ 1 + \gamma x' + \dots + \gamma^p x'^p + \dots, \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} 1 + \Pi_1 x' + \Pi_2 x'^2 + \dots + \Pi_p x'^p + \dots, \\ x' + \Pi_1 x'^2 + \dots + \Pi_{p-1} x'^p + \dots, \\ x'^2 + \dots + \Pi_{p-2} x'^p + \dots, \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma^2 \end{vmatrix};$$

where the second and third columns of the determinants here written can be supplied by replacing x' by y' and z' , respectively. Comparing coefficients of $x^p y^q z^r$ on both sides, we have the required result. It should be noticed that when the difference-product determinant is written in the form used above (viz. with ascending powers in the order of the columns), the sign to be attached to the product is always positive, since the product of the two determinants, containing the term $\Pi_p \Pi_{q-1} \Pi_{r-2} \beta \gamma^2$, must contain the term $\alpha^p \beta^q \gamma^r$. Note also, in applying this calculation to particular examples, that $\Pi_0 = 1$, and $\Pi_j = 0$ when j is negative.

16. Prove, by the preceding example,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha^2 & \alpha^5 \\ 1 & \beta^2 & \beta^5 \\ 1 & \gamma^2 & \gamma^5 \end{vmatrix} \equiv \begin{vmatrix} \Pi_0 & \Pi_2 & \Pi_5 \\ 0 & \Pi_1 & \Pi_4 \\ 0 & \Pi_0 & \Pi_3 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

The quotient, therefore, of the given determinant by the difference-product is $\Pi_1 \Pi_3 - \Pi_4$, which may be shown to be equal to $\Sigma \alpha^3 \beta + \Sigma \alpha^2 \beta^2 + 2 \Sigma \alpha^2 \beta \gamma$.

17. Prove, by the method of Ex. 15,

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_1^2 \dots \alpha_1^{n-2} & \alpha_1^m \\ 1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_2^2 \dots \alpha_2^{n-2} & \alpha_2^m \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \alpha_n & \alpha_n^2 \dots \alpha_n^{n-2} & \alpha_n^m \end{vmatrix} \equiv \Pi_{m-n+1} \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_1^2 \dots \alpha_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_2^2 \dots \alpha_2^{n-1} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & \alpha_n & \alpha_n^2 \dots \alpha_n^{n-1} \end{vmatrix},$$

where $m =$ or $> n$.

This result may be derived directly from Ex. 1, Art. 83.

CHAPTER XVI.

COVARIANTS AND INVARIANTS.

166. **Definitions.**—In this and the following chapters the notation

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) (x, y)^n$$

will be employed to represent the quantic

$$a_0 x^n + n a_1 x^{n-1} y + \frac{n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2} a_2 x^{n-2} y^2 + \dots + n a_{n-1} x y^{n-1} + a_n y^n,$$

a homogeneous function of x and y , written with binomial coefficients. If we put $y = 1$, this quantic becomes U_n of Art. 35; and the same notation may be used to denote the homogeneous quantic written in x and y .

Let ϕ be a seminvariant (as defined in the preceding chapter), of the order ϖ , of the roots $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots a_n$ of the equation $U_n = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) (x, 1)^n = 0$; then, if

$$\frac{1}{a_1 - x}, \quad \frac{1}{a_2 - x}, \quad \dots \quad \frac{1}{a_n - x}$$

be substituted for $a_1, a_2, \dots a_n$, respectively, the result multiplied by U_n^{ϖ} (to remove fractions) is a *covariant* of U_n if it involves x , and an *invariant* if it does not involve x .

From this definition of an invariant we may infer at once that

$$a_0^{\varpi} \phi(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots a_n)$$

is an invariant of U_n when ϕ is composed of a number of terms of the same type, each of which involves all the roots, and each root in the same degree ϖ .

These definitions may be extended to the case where ϕ (the function of differences) involves symmetrically the roots of several equations $U_p=0$, $U_q=0$, $U_r=0$, &c., the roots of these equations entering ϕ in the orders ϖ , ϖ' , ϖ'' , &c. . . . respectively.

We may substitute for each root a , $\frac{1}{a-x}$ as before, and remove fractions by the multiplier $U_p^{\varpi} U_q^{\varpi'} U_r^{\varpi''}$ &c. If the result involves the variable x , we obtain a covariant of the system of quantities U_p , U_q , U_r , &c.; and if it does not, ϕ is an invariant of the system.

167. Formation of Covariants and Invariants.—We proceed now to show how the foregoing transformations may be conveniently effected, and covariants and invariants calculated in terms of the coefficients. With this object, let the seminvariant be expressed in terms of the coefficients as follows:—

$$\alpha_0^{\varpi} \phi(a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) = F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n).$$

Now, changing the roots into their reciprocals, and consequently a_0 into a_n , &c., a_r into a_{n-r} , &c. (that is, giving the suffixes their complementary values), we have

$$\alpha_0^{\varpi} \psi(a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) = F(a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots a_0),$$

where ψ is an integral symmetric function of the roots, and F the corresponding value in terms of the coefficients. This function is called the *source** of the covariant derived therefrom.

Again, substituting a_1-x , a_2-x , . . . a_n-x for $a_1, a_2, \dots a_n$, and consequently U_r , &c., for a_r , &c. (Art. 35), we find

$$\alpha_0^{\varpi} \psi(a_1-x, a_2-x, \dots a_n-x) = F(U_n, U_{n-1}, \dots U_1, U_0).$$

Thus, by two steps we derive a covariant from a function of the differences, and find at the same time its equivalent calculated in terms of the coefficients.

To illustrate this mode of procedure, we take as an example, in the case of the cubic,

$$\alpha_0^2 \Sigma (a-\beta)^2 = 18(a_1^2 - \alpha_0 a_2);$$

* This term was introduced by Mr. Roberts.

whence, changing the roots into their reciprocals, and a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 into a_3, a_2, a_1, a_0 , we have

$$a_0^2 \Sigma a^2 (\beta - \gamma)^2 = 18 (a_2^2 - a_3 a_1).$$

Again, changing a, β, γ into $a - x, \beta - x, \gamma - x$, and a_1, a_2, a_3 into U_1, U_2, U_3 , respectively, we find

$$a_0^2 \Sigma (\beta - \gamma)^2 (x - a)^2 = 18 (U_2^2 - U_3 U_1).$$

The second member of this equation becomes when expanded

$$U_1 U_3 - U_2^2 = (a_0 a_2 - a_1^2) x^2 + (a_0 a_3 - a_1 a_2) x + (a_1 a_3 - a_2^2).$$

This covariant is called the *Hessian* of U_3 . We refer to it as H_x , since H is its leading coefficient.

As a second example we take the following function of the quartic:—

$$a_0^2 \Sigma (\beta - \gamma)^2 (a - \delta)^2 = 24 (a_0 a_4 - 4 a_1 a_3 + 3 a_2^2); \quad (1)$$

whence, changing the roots into their reciprocals, and a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 into a_4, a_3, a_2, a_1, a_0 , we have

$$a_0^2 \Sigma (\gamma - \beta)^2 (\delta - a)^2 = 24 (a_4 a_0 - 4 a_3 a_1 + 3 a_2^2).$$

These transformations, therefore, do not alter equation (1): again, since in this case $\psi(a, \beta, \gamma, \delta)$ is a function of the differences of the roots, ψ is unchanged when $a - x, \beta - x$, &c. . . ., are substituted for a, β, γ, δ . We infer that $a_0 a_4 - 4 a_1 a_3 + 3 a_2^2$ is an invariant of the quartic U_4 .

We observe also, in accordance with what was stated in Art. 166, since

$$\phi = (\beta - \gamma)^2 (a - \delta)^2 + (\gamma - a)^2 (\beta - \delta)^2 + (a - \beta)^2 (\gamma - \delta)^2,$$

that any one of the three terms of which ϕ is made up involves each of the roots in the degree ∞ , which is here equal to 2.

In a similar manner it may be shown that

$$\begin{aligned} a_0^3 \{ (\gamma - a)(\beta - \delta) - (a - \beta)(\gamma - \delta) \} \{ (a - \beta)(\gamma - \delta) - (\beta - \gamma)(a - \delta) \} \\ \times \{ (\beta - \gamma)(a - \delta) - (\gamma - a)(\beta - \delta) \} \\ = -432 (a_0 a_2 a_4 + 2 a_1 a_2 a_3 - a_0 a_3^2 - a_1^2 a_4 - a_2^3) \end{aligned}$$

is an invariant of the quartic.

There is no difficulty in determining in any particular case whether ϕ leads to an invariant or covariant, for if it leads to an invariant, $\phi = \pm \psi$, that is, ϕ is unchanged (except in sign, when its type-term is the product of an odd number of differences of the roots, *i.e.* when its weight is odd) when for the roots their reciprocals are substituted, and fractions removed by the simplest multiplier $(a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_n)^{\varpi}$. An invariant whose weight is odd is called a *skew invariant*.

168. **Properties of Covariants and Invariants.**—Since ϕ is a homogeneous function of the roots, the covariant derived from it may be written under the form

$$\frac{U^{\varpi}}{x^{\kappa}} \phi \left(\frac{x}{a_1 - x}, \frac{x}{a_2 - x}, \dots \frac{x}{a_n - x} \right),$$

where ϖ is the order, and κ the weight, of ϕ .

Also, since ϕ is a function of the differences, we may add 1 to each constituent, such as $\frac{x}{a_r - x}$, thus obtaining $\frac{a_r}{a_r - x}$. Again, multiplying each constituent by x , the covariant becomes

$$\frac{U^{\varpi}}{x^{2\kappa}} \phi \left(\frac{a_1 x}{a_1 - x}, \frac{a_2 x}{a_2 - x}, \dots \frac{a_n x}{a_n - x} \right).$$

Employing now the notation x' , a'_1 , a'_2 , &c., for the reciprocals of x , a_1 , a_2 , &c.; and denoting by U' the function whose roots are a'_1 , a'_2 , \dots a'_n , viz.

$$U' = a_n x'^n + n a_{n-1} x'^{n-1} + \&c., \dots + n a_1 x' + a_0 = 0;$$

since
$$\frac{1}{a'_r - x'} = \frac{-a_r x}{a_r - x},$$

and
$$U = a_n x^n (x' - a'_1)(x' - a'_2) \dots (x' - a'_n) = x^n U',$$

the covariant above written is easily reduced to the form

$$(-1)^{\kappa} x^{n\varpi-2\kappa} U'^{\varpi} \phi \left(\frac{1}{a'_1 - x'}, \frac{1}{a'_2 - x'} \dots \frac{1}{a'_n - x'} \right);$$

whence it is proved that the covariant is unaltered when for x , a_1 , a_2 , \dots a_n their reciprocals are substituted, and the result

multiplied by $(-1)^\kappa x^{n\varpi-2\kappa}$. This transformation changes a_r into a_{n-r} , that is, each coefficient into the coefficient with the complementary suffix.

Now if any covariant whose degree is m be written in the form

$$(B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots B_m)(x, 1)^m; \quad (1)$$

changing $a_0, a_1, \dots a_n, x$, into $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots a_0, \frac{1}{x}$, we have another form for this covariant, namely,

$$(-1)^\kappa x^{n\varpi-2\kappa}(C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots C_m)\left(\frac{1}{x}, 1\right)^m;$$

and as this form is an integral function of x of the same type as (1), we have, by comparing the two forms,

$$m = n\varpi - 2\kappa, \quad B_0 = (-1)^\kappa C_m, \dots B_r = (-1)^\kappa C_{m-r};$$

thus determining the degree of the covariant in terms of the order and weight of the function ϕ , and showing that the conjugate coefficients (*i.e.* those equally removed from the extremes) are related in the following way:—

If $F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)$ be any coefficient of the covariant, $(-1)^\kappa F(a_n, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots a_0)$ is its conjugate.

This property is characteristic of covariants, and is not possessed by semicovariants, although the two classes of functions agree in the mode of formation by the operator D , as will appear in the Article which follows:—

From the expression for the degree of a covariant in terms of ϖ and κ , namely, $n\varpi - 2\kappa$, we may draw the following important inferences:—

(1). *If $a_0^\varpi \phi$ is an invariant, $n\varpi = 2\kappa$.*

For, in this case ϕ and ψ are the same function, and consequently their weights κ and $n\varpi - \kappa$ are also the same.

(2). *All the invariants of quantics of odd degrees are of even order.*

For if n be odd, it is plain from the equation $n\varpi = 2\kappa$ that ϖ must be even, and κ a multiple of n .

(3). *All covariants of quantics of even degrees are of even degrees.*

For in this case $n\varpi - 2\kappa$ is even.

(4). *Covariants of quantics of odd degrees are of odd or even degree according as the order of their coefficients is odd or even.*

(5). *The resultant of two covariants is always of an even order in the coefficients of the original quantic.*

For, the order of the resultant expressed in terms of the orders and weights of the covariants is

$$\varpi (n\varpi' - 2\kappa') + \varpi' (n\varpi - 2\kappa) = 2 (n\varpi\varpi' - \varpi\kappa' - \varpi'\kappa).$$

169. Formation of Covariants by the Operator D .—

From Art. 164 we infer that the expansion of $F(U_n, U_{n-1}, \dots U_0)$ may be expressed by means of the Differential Calculus in the form

$$F_0 + xDF_0 + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} D^2F_0 + \dots + \frac{x^r}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots r} D^rF_0 + \dots,$$

where F_0 is the result of making $x = 0$ in $F(U_n, U_{n-1}, \dots U_0)$, viz.

$$F_0 = F(a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots a_0),$$

and
$$D \equiv a_0 \frac{d}{da_1} + 2a_1 \frac{d}{da_2} + 3a_2 \frac{d}{da_3} + \dots + na_{n-1} \frac{d}{da_n}.$$

In forming a covariant by this process, the source F_0 with which we set out is altered by the successive operations D , each operation reducing the weight by one, till we arrive at the original function $F(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)$ from which the source was formed. Since this is a function of the differences, the expression resulting from the next operation D vanishes, and the covariant is completely formed. The corresponding operations δ on the symmetric function ψ have the effect of reducing the degree in the roots by one each step, the final symmetric function containing the differences only. Thus by successive operations we obtain two expressions for a covariant—one in terms of the roots, and the other in terms of the coefficients.

The degree m of the covariant is plainly equal to the number of times δ operates in reducing ψ_0 to ϕ , *i.e.* equal to the difference of the weights of the extreme coefficients. And since

$$\psi_0 = (a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)^{\varpi} \phi \left(\frac{1}{a_1}, \frac{1}{a_2}, \dots, \frac{1}{a_n} \right),$$

the weight of ψ_0 is $n\varpi - \kappa$, where κ is the weight of $\phi(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$; hence the degree of the covariant whose leading coefficient is $a_0^{\varpi} \phi$ is $n\varpi - 2\kappa$, the same value as before obtained. We add some simple examples in illustration of this method.

EXAMPLES.

1. Form the Hessian of the cubic

$$a_0 x^3 + 3a_1 x^2 + 3a_2 x + a_3 = 0.$$

Taking the function $H \equiv a_0 a_2 - a_1^2$, we find, as in Art. 167,

$$a_0^2 \Sigma a^2 (\beta - \gamma)^2 = 18 (a_2^2 - a_1 a_3).$$

Operating on the left-hand side by δ , and on the right-hand side by D , we obtain

$$- a_0^2 \Sigma 2a (\beta - \gamma)^2 = 18 (a_1 a_2 - a_0 a_3);$$

and operating in the same way again,

$$a_0^2 \Sigma 2(\beta - \gamma)^2 = 36 (a_1^2 - a_0 a_2).$$

The next operation causes both sides of the equation to vanish. Hence the required covariant is, as in Art. 167,

$$(a_1 a_3 - a_2^2) + (a_0 a_3 - a_1 a_2) x + (a_0 a_2 - a_1^2) x^2.$$

We find at the same time the corresponding expression in terms of x and the roots.

2. Form the Hessian of the biquadratic

$$a_0 x^4 + 4a_1 x^3 + 6a_2 x^2 + 4a_3 x + a_4 = 0.$$

The covariant whose leading coefficient is $H \equiv a_0 a_2 - a_1^2$ is called the Hessian of the biquadratic. Its degree is 4, since $\varpi = 2$, and $\kappa = 2$; and $\therefore n\varpi - 2\kappa = 4$. Changing the coefficients into their complementaries, the source of the covariant is $a_4 a_2 - a_3^2$, and we easily find

$$\begin{aligned} H_x &\equiv (a_0 a_2 - a_1^2) x^4 + 2(a_0 a_3 - a_1 a_2) x^3 + (a_0 a_4 + 2a_1 a_3 - 3a_2^2) x^2 \\ &\quad + 2(a_1 a_4 - a_2 a_3) x + (a_2 a_4 - a_3^2). \end{aligned}$$

3. Form for a cubic a covariant whose leading coefficient is the semi-invariant G .

Changing the coefficients in G into their complementaries, we get the source $a_3^2 a_0 - 3a_3 a_2 a_1 + 2a_2^3$, and operating with D we easily obtain the covariant in the following form:—

$$(a_3^2 a_0 - 3a_3 a_2 a_1 + 2a_2^3) + 3(a_3 a_2 a_0 + a_2^2 a_1 - 2a_3 a_1^2)x \\ - 3(a_0 a_1 a_3 + a_1^2 a_2 - 2a_0 a_2^2)x^2 - (a_0^2 a_3 - 3a_0 a_1 a_2 + 2a_1^3)x^3.$$

In this the conjugate coefficients (Art. 168) differ in sign as well as in the interchange of complementaries, the weight of G being odd. The student will have no difficulty in expressing this covariant in terms of x and the roots by the aid of the value of G given in Ex. 15, Art. 27.

170. Theorem.—*Any function of the differences of the roots of a covariant or semicovariant is a function of the differences of the roots of the original equation.*

Let the covariant or semicovariant be

$$\phi(x) = (x - \rho_1)(x - \rho_2) \dots (x - \rho_p).$$

Since ϕ is a function of the differences of $x, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n$, we have

$$\frac{d\phi}{dx} - \delta\phi = 0, \text{ viz., } \phi'(x) + \Sigma(x - \rho_2)(x - \rho_3) \dots (x - \rho_p) \delta\rho_1 = 0.$$

Now, substituting for x in this identical equation each root ρ_1, ρ_2, \dots in succession, we have

$$\phi'(\rho_1)(1 + \delta\rho_1) = 0, \quad \phi'(\rho_2)(1 + \delta\rho_2) = 0, \text{ \&c., \&c.,}$$

whence

$$\delta\rho_1 + 1 = 0, \quad \delta\rho_2 + 1 = 0, \dots \delta\rho_j + 1 = 0, \dots$$

and consequently

$$\delta(\rho_j - \rho_k) = 0,$$

which proves the theorem.

In the preceding pages many instances have been given in which the roots of covariants or semicovariants are expressed in terms of the roots of the original equation; and the student will easily verify that the result of the operation of δ on any such expression is -1 . The roots of the covariants in Exs. 1 and 3 of the preceding Article are given in Ex. 25, p. 57, and Ex. 13, p. 88, Vol. I., respectively; and roots of semicovariants will be found in Exs. 10, 11, p. 87, and 12, 14, p. 88, Vol. I.

The theorem here proved is clearly true also for any function of the differences of the roots of two or more covariants or semicovariants.

171. Double Linear Transformation applied to the Theory of Covariants.—Hitherto we have discussed the theory of covariants and invariants through the medium of the roots of equations. We proceed now to give some account of a different and more general mode of treatment, by means of which this theory may be extended to quantics homogeneous in more than two variables, such as present themselves in the numerous important geometrical applications of the theory. Although this enlarged view of the subject does not come within the scope of the present work, we think it desirable to show the connexion between the method of treatment we have adopted and the more general method referred to. With this object we give in the present Article two important propositions.

PROP. I.—*Let any quantic*

$$U_n = a_0 (x - a_1 y) (x - a_2 y) \dots (x - a_n y)$$

be transformed by the substitution

$$x = \lambda x' + \mu y', \quad y = \lambda' x' + \mu' y';$$

then if I and I' be corresponding invariants of the two forms U_n and U'_n , we have

$$I' = (\lambda \mu' - \lambda' \mu)^n I.$$

To prove this, let

$$I = a_0^\omega \Sigma (a_1 - a_2)^a (a_2 - a_3)^b \dots (a_1 - a_n)^l,$$

each root entering every term of Σ in the degree ω . When any factor of U_n , e. g. $x - a_1 y$, is transformed, we find

$$x - a_1 y = (\lambda - \lambda' a_1) (x' - a'_1 y'), \text{ where } a'_1 = \frac{\mu' a_1 - \mu}{\lambda - \lambda' a_1};$$

hence $U'_n = a'_0 (x' - a'_1 y') (x' - a'_2 y') \dots (x' - a'_n y')$,

where $a'_0 = a_0 (\lambda - \lambda' a_1) (\lambda - \lambda' a_2) \dots (\lambda - \lambda' a_n)$.

Again, for the difference of any two roots of U'_n , we have

$$a'_p - a'_q = \frac{(\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)(a_p - a_q)}{(\lambda - \lambda'a_p)(\lambda - \lambda'a_q)}.$$

Making these substitutions for a'_0 and for all the differences of roots in I' , the denominators of the fractions which enter by the transformation disappear, and we have finally

$$I' = (\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^\kappa I.$$

PROP. II.—If $\phi(x, y)$ be a covariant of the quantic U_n , the new value of ϕ , after linear transformation, is

$$(\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^\kappa \phi(x, y).$$

The proof is similar to that of the preceding proposition. We have

$$\phi(x, y) = a_0^\varpi \Sigma (a_1 - a_2)^a (a_2 - a_3)^b \dots (x - a_1 y)^p (x - a_2 y)^q \dots,$$

where each root enters in the degree ϖ .

Now, transforming, as in the previous proposition, the value of $\phi(x, y)$ thus derived; since the factors $\lambda - \lambda'a_1$, $\lambda - \lambda'a_2$, ... all enter in the same degree ϖ in the denominator, they will all be removed by the multiplier $a_0'^\varpi$, and the transformed value of $\phi(x, y)$ is

$$(\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^\kappa \phi(x, y).$$

The determinant $\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu$, whose constituents are the coefficients which enter into the double linear transformation, is called the *modulus of transformation*.

Without any reference to the roots of the equation $U_n = 0$, we can suppose the transformation of x and y to be applied to the quantic in the form

$$U_n = ax^n + na_1x^{n-1}y + \frac{n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2} a_2x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + a_ny^n.$$

The propositions here proved with respect to invariants and covariants regarded as functions of the roots will still hold good

when these functions are expressed in their equivalent forms in terms of the coefficients. We may therefore now restate the Propositions in the following form:—

PROP. I.—*An invariant is a function of the coefficients of a quantic, such that when the quantic is transformed by linear transformation of the variables, the same function of the new coefficients is equal to the original function multiplied by a power of the modulus of transformation.*

PROP. II.—*A covariant is a function of the coefficients of a quantic, and also of the variables, such that when the quantic is transformed by linear transformation, the same function of the new variables and coefficients is equal to the original function multiplied by a power of the modulus of transformation.*

The definitions contained in the preceding propositions are plainly applicable to quantics homogeneous in any number of variables, and form the basis of the more extended theory of covariants and invariants above referred to. We give among the following examples an application to the case of a quantic involving three variables.

EXAMPLES.

1. Performing the linear transformation

$$x = \lambda X + \mu Y, \quad y = \lambda_1 X + \mu_1 Y,$$

if

$$ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = AX^2 + 2BXY + CY^2,$$

prove that

$$AC - B^2 = (\lambda\mu_1 - \lambda_1\mu)^2 (ac - b^2).$$

2. Performing the same transformation, if

$$(a, b, c, d, e)(x, y)^4 = (A, B, C, D, E)(X, Y)^4,$$

prove that

$$AE - 4BD + 3C^2 = (\lambda\mu_1 - \lambda_1\mu)^4 (ae - 4bd + 3c^2).$$

3. Performing the same transformation, if

$$ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2 = AX^2 + 2BXY + CY^2,$$

and

$$a_1x^2 + 2b_1xy + c_1y^2 = A_1X^2 + 2B_1XY + C_1Y^2,$$

prove that

$$AC_1 + A_1C - 2BB_1 = (\lambda\mu_1 - \lambda_1\mu)^2 (ac_1 + a_1c - 2bb_1).$$

This follows from Ex. 1, applied to the quadratic forms

$$(a + \kappa a_1)x^2 + 2(b + \kappa b_1)xy + (c + \kappa c_1)y^2 = (A + \kappa A_1)X^2 + 2(B + \kappa B_1)XY + (C + \kappa C_1)Y^2,$$

by comparing the coefficients of κ on both sides.

Whence we may infer that, if two quadratics determine a harmonic system, the new quadratics obtained by linear transformation also form a harmonic system. For their roots being α, β , and α_1, β_1 , we have

$$aa_1\{(a - \alpha_1)(\beta - \beta_1) + (\alpha - \beta_1)(\beta - \alpha_1)\} = 2(aa_1 + a_1c - 2bb_1).$$

4. If the homogeneous quadratic function of three variables

$$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2fyz + 2gzx + 2hxy$$

be transformed into

$$AX^2 + BY^2 + CZ^2 + 2FYZ + 2GZX + 2HXY$$

by the linear substitution

$$x = \lambda_1 X + \mu_1 Y + \nu_1 Z, \quad y = \lambda_2 X + \mu_2 Y + \nu_2 Z, \quad z = \lambda_3 X + \mu_3 Y + \nu_3 Z;$$

prove the relation

$$\begin{vmatrix} A & H & G \\ H & B & F \\ G & F & C \end{vmatrix} = (\lambda_1 \mu_2 \nu_3)^2 \begin{vmatrix} a & h & g \\ h & b & f \\ g & f & c \end{vmatrix},$$

where the determinant $(\lambda_1 \mu_2 \nu_3)$ is the modulus of transformation.

This is easily verified by multiplying the proposed determinant of the original coefficients twice in succession by the modulus of transformation written in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \lambda_3 \\ \mu_1 & \mu_2 & \mu_3 \\ \nu_1 & \nu_2 & \nu_3 \end{vmatrix},$$

and comparing the constituents of the resulting determinant with the expanded values of the coefficients of X^2, Y^2 , &c., in the new form.

It appears therefore that the determinant here treated is an invariant of the given function of three variables.

172. Properties of Covariants derived from Linear Transformation.—We proceed now to show, taking the second statement of Prop. II. in Art. 171 as the definition of a covariant, that the law of derivation of the coefficients given in Art. 169 immediately follows:—that is, *given any one coefficient, all the rest may be determined.*

For this purpose, performing the linear transformation

$$x = X + hY, \quad y = 0X + Y,$$

whose modulus is unity, the quantic

$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n$ becomes $(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots A_n)(X, Y)^n$, where

$$A_0 = a_0, \quad A_1 = a_1 + a_0 h, \quad A_2 = a_2 + 2a_1 h + a_0 h^2, \quad \&c. \quad (\text{Art. 35.})$$

Now, if $\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n, x, y)$ be any covariant of this quantic, we have by the definition

$$\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n, x, y) = \phi(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots A_n, X, Y),$$

or

$$\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n, x, y) = \phi(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots A_n, x - hy, y).$$

Expanding the second member of this equation, and confining our attention to the terms which multiply h : observing also that $\frac{dA_r}{dh} = ra_{r-1}$ when terms are omitted which would be multiplied in the result by $h^2, h^3, \&c.$, we have

$$\phi + h \left(-y \frac{d\phi}{dx} + D\phi \right) + h^2 \left(\quad \right) + \&c. \dots = \phi,$$

which must hold whatever value h may have; hence

$$y \frac{d\phi}{dx} = a_0 \frac{d\phi}{da_1} + 2a_1 \frac{d\phi}{da_2} + 3a_2 \frac{d\phi}{da_3} + \dots + na_{n-1} \frac{d\phi}{da_n}, \quad (1)$$

and, substituting for ϕ the value

$$(B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots B_m)(x, y)^m,$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} & mB_0x^{m-1}y + m(m-1)B_1x^{m-2}y^2 + \dots + mB_{m-1}y^m \\ &= DB_0x^m + mDB_1x^{m-1}y + \dots + DB_my^m; \end{aligned}$$

whence, comparing coefficients, we have the following equations:

$$DB_0 = 0, \quad DB_1 = B_0, \quad DB_2 = 2B_1, \dots DB_m = mB_{m-1},$$

which determine the law of derivation of the coefficients from the source B_m ; the leading coefficient B_0 being a function of the differences, since $DB_0 = 0$.

The calculation of the coefficients is facilitated by the following theorem, which has been proved already on different principles:—

Two coefficients of a covariant equally removed from the extremes become equal (plus or minus) when in either of them $a_0, a_1, \dots a_n$ are replaced by $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots a_0$, respectively.

To prove this, let the quantic be transformed by the linear substitution

$$x = 0X + Y, \quad y = X + 0Y, \quad \text{whose modulus} = -1.$$

Thus

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n = (a_n, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots a_0)(X, Y)^n,$$

and, by definition, any covariant

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(a_n, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots a_0, X, Y) &= (-1)^\kappa \phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n, x, y) \\ &= (-1)^\kappa \phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n, Y, X); \end{aligned}$$

whence it follows that the coefficients of the covariant equally removed from the extremes are similar in form, and become identical (except in sign when κ is odd) when for the suffixes their complementary values are substituted.

It is easily inferred in a similar manner that a covariant satisfies the differential equation

$$x \frac{d\phi}{dy} = a_n \frac{d\phi}{da_{n-1}} + 2a_{n-1} \frac{d\phi}{da_{n-2}} + 3a_{n-2} \frac{d\phi}{da_{n-3}} + \dots + na_1 \frac{d\phi}{da_0}, \quad (2)$$

as well as the equation (1) already given.

Again, if $\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)$ be an invariant of the quantic, the former transformation of the present Article gives, employing the definition of Art. 171,

$$\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n) = \phi(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots A_n);$$

and proceeding as before, in the case of a covariant, we prove that an invariant must satisfy both the differential equations

$$a_0 \frac{d\phi}{da_1} + 2a_1 \frac{d\phi}{da_2} + 3a_2 \frac{d\phi}{da_3} + \dots na_{n-1} \frac{d\phi}{da_n} = 0,$$

$$a_n \frac{d\phi}{da_{n-1}} + 2a_{n-1} \frac{d\phi}{da_{n-2}} + 3a_{n-2} \frac{d\phi}{da_{n-3}} + \dots + na_1 \frac{d\phi}{da_0} = 0,$$

either of which may be regarded as contained in the other, since if we make the linear transformation $x = Y, y = X$ (whose modulus = -1), we have from the definition of an invariant

$$\phi(a_n, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots a_0) = (-1)^\kappa \phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n);$$

proving that an invariant is a function of the coefficients of a quantic which does not alter (except in sign if the weight be odd) when the coefficients are written in direct or reverse order.

The relation between invariants and seminvariants, covariants and semicovariants, is now clear. Invariants of the quantic $(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n$ satisfy both the differential equations last written, whereas seminvariants of $(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)(x, 1)^n$ satisfy only the first of these equations. In like manner semicovariants of $(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)(x, 1)^n$ satisfy only the first of the differential equations (1) and (2) above written, whereas both are satisfied by covariants.

Having now explained the nature of Covariants and Invariants of quantics, and the connexion between the two modes in which these functions may be discussed, we proceed to prove certain propositions which are of wide application in the formation of the Covariants and Invariants of quantics transformed by a linear substitution. The student who is reading this subject for the first time may pass at once to the next chapter, where the principles already explained are applied to the cases of the quadratic, cubic, and quartic.

173. PROP. I.—*Let any homogeneous quantic of the n^{th} degree $f(x, y)$ become $F(X, Y)$ by the linear transformation*

$$x = \lambda X + \mu Y, \quad y = \lambda' X + \mu' Y;$$

also let any function u , of x, y , become U by the same transformation ; then we have

$$M^n f \left(\frac{du}{dy}, -\frac{du}{dx} \right) = F \left(\frac{dU}{dY}, -\frac{dU}{dX} \right), \quad (1)$$

where M is the modulus of transformation.

To prove this proposition, solving the equations

$$x = \lambda X + \mu Y, \quad y = \lambda' X + \mu' Y,$$

we have

$$MX = \mu'x - \mu y, \quad MY = -\lambda'x + \lambda y;$$

whence

$$M \frac{dX}{dx} = \mu', \quad M \frac{dX}{dy} = -\mu, \quad M \frac{dY}{dx} = -\lambda', \quad M \frac{dY}{dy} = \lambda.$$

$$\text{Again, } \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{dU}{dX} \frac{dX}{dx} + \frac{dU}{dY} \frac{dY}{dx} = \frac{1}{M} \left(\mu' \frac{dU}{dX} - \lambda' \frac{dU}{dY} \right),$$

$$\frac{du}{dy} = \frac{dU}{dX} \frac{dX}{dy} + \frac{dU}{dY} \frac{dY}{dy} = \frac{1}{M} \left(-\mu \frac{dU}{dX} + \lambda \frac{dU}{dY} \right),$$

which equations may be put under the form

$$\frac{du}{dy} = \lambda \left(\frac{1}{M} \frac{dU}{dY} \right) + \mu \left(-\frac{1}{M} \frac{dU}{dX} \right),$$

$$-\frac{du}{dx} = \lambda' \left(\frac{1}{M} \frac{dU}{dY} \right) + \mu' \left(-\frac{1}{M} \frac{dU}{dX} \right);$$

and since

$$f(\lambda X + \mu Y, \lambda' X + \mu' Y) = F(X, Y),$$

changing X and Y into $\frac{1}{M} \frac{dU}{dY}$, and $-\frac{1}{M} \frac{dU}{dX}$, respectively, the proposition is proved.

In an exactly similar manner, changing X and Y into

$$\frac{1}{M} \frac{d}{dY}, \quad -\frac{1}{M} \frac{d}{dX},$$

it may be proved that

$$M^n f\left(\frac{d}{dy}, -\frac{d}{dx}\right) u = F\left(\frac{d}{dY}, -\frac{d}{dX}\right) U. \quad (2)$$

The results (1) and (2) may be applied to generate covariants and invariants, as we proceed to show.

Suppose $f(x, y)$ and u to be covariants of any third quantic v , where v may become identical with either as a particular case; also, denoting by $F_c(X, Y)$ and U_c the same covariants expressed in terms of the X, Y variables and the new coefficients of v after linear transformation, we have, by Prop. II., Art. 171, the identical equations

$$M^p F(X, Y) = F_c(X, Y), \text{ and } M^q U = U_c;$$

whence, substituting from these equations in (1),

$$M^r f\left(\frac{du}{dy}, -\frac{du}{dx}\right) = F_c\left(\frac{dU_c}{dY}, -\frac{dU_c}{dX}\right),$$

proving that $f\left(\frac{du}{dy}, -\frac{du}{dx}\right)$ is a covariant of v .

And in a similar manner it is proved from (2) that

$$f\left(\frac{d}{dy}, -\frac{d}{dx}\right)u$$

leads to an invariant or covariant of v , according as u is of the n^{th} or any higher order.

We add some applications of this method of forming invariants and covariants.

EXAMPLES.

1. If $\frac{d}{dy}, -\frac{d}{dx}$ be substituted for x and y in the quartic $(a, b, c, d, e)(x, y)^4 \equiv U$, and the resulting operation performed on the quartic itself, show that the invariant I is obtained.

We find

$$(a, b, c, d, e)\left(\frac{d}{dy}, -\frac{d}{dx}\right)^4 U = 48 (ae - 4bd + 3c^2).$$

2. Prove, by performing the same operation on H_x , the Hessian of the quartic (Ex. 2, Art. 169), that the invariant J is obtained.

Here we find

$$(a, b, c, d, e)\left(\frac{d}{dy}, -\frac{d}{dx}\right)^4 H_x = 72 (ace + 2bcd - ad^2 - eb^2 - c^3).$$

3. Prove that

$$(a, b, c, d)\left(\frac{d}{dy}, -\frac{d}{dx}\right)^3 G_x = -12 (a^2d^3 - 6abcd + 4ac^3 + 4b^3d - 3b^2c^2),$$

where G_x is the cubic covariant of the cubic $(a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3$ (Ex. 3, Art. 169).

4. Find the value of

$$(ac - b^2)\left(\frac{du}{dy}\right)^2 - (ad - bc)\frac{du}{dy}\frac{du}{dx} + (bd - c^2)\left(\frac{du}{dx}\right)^2,$$

where $u \equiv (a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3$.

$$Ans. - 9H_x^2.$$

174. PROP. II.—If $\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)$ be an invariant of the form $(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n$, and u any quantic of the n^{th} or any higher degree,

$$\phi\left(\frac{d^n u}{dx^n}, \frac{d^n u}{dx^{n-1}dy}, \frac{d^n u}{dx^{n-2}dy^2}, \dots, \frac{d^n u}{dy^n}\right)$$

is an invariant or covariant of u .

To prove this, let

$$x = \lambda X + \mu Y, \quad x' = \lambda X' + \mu Y',$$

$$y = \lambda' X + \mu' Y, \quad y' = \lambda' X' + \mu' Y';$$

and transforming, as in the last proposition,

$$x' \frac{d}{dx} + y' \frac{d}{dy} = X' \frac{d}{dX} + Y' \frac{d}{dY};$$

also transforming u , we have $U = u$; whence

$$\left(X' \frac{d}{dX} + Y' \frac{d}{dY}\right)^n U = \left(x' \frac{d}{dx} + y' \frac{d}{dy}\right)^n u; \quad (1)$$

and writing this equation when expanded under the form

$$(D_0, D_1, D_2, \dots D_n)(X', Y')^n = (d_0, d_1, d_2, \dots d_n)(x', y')^n,$$

we have, from the definition of an invariant,

$$\phi(D_0, D_1, D_2, \dots D_n) = M^q \phi(d_0, d_1, d_2, \dots d_n),$$

showing that $\phi(d_0, d_1, d_2, \dots d_n)$ is an invariant or covariant.

When x, y , and x', y' are transformed similarly, as in the present proposition, they are said to be *cogredient* variables. And in general, for any number of variables, when the coefficients which enter into the transformation of one set are the same as those which enter into the transformation of the other, the two sets are said to be *cogredient*.

The functions which occur in the equation (1) are called *emanants*; the expression on the right-hand side of the equation being the n^{th} emanant of u .

EXAMPLES.

1. Let the quadratic

$$a_0x^2 + 2a_1xy + a_2y^2 \text{ become } A_0X^2 + 2A_1XY + A_2Y^2.$$

We have then, as in Ex. 1, Art. 171,

$$A_0A_2 - A_1^2 = M^2 (a_0a_2 - a_1^2),$$

Now since

$$X'^2 \frac{d^2 U}{dX^2} + 2X'Y' \frac{d^2 U}{dXdY} + Y'^2 \frac{d^2 U}{dY^2} = x'^2 \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} + 2x'y' \frac{d^2 u}{dxdy} + y'^2 \frac{d^2 u}{dy^2},$$

it follows from the last result, considering X' , Y' , and x' , y' as variables, that

$$\frac{d^2 U}{dX^2} \frac{d^2 U}{dY^2} - \left(\frac{d^2 U}{dXdY} \right)^2 = M^2 \left\{ \frac{d^2 u}{dx^2} \frac{d^2 u}{dy^2} - \left(\frac{d^2 u}{dxdy} \right)^2 \right\}.$$

This gives an invariant of a quadratic, and a covariant (called the *Hessian*) of any higher quantic.

2. When u has the values

$$(a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3 \text{ and } (a, b, c, d, e)(x, y)^4,$$

what covariants are derived by the process of the last example?

(Cf. Exs. 1, 2, Art. 169.)

$$\text{Ans. (1). } (ac - b^2)x^2 + (ad - bc)xy + (bd - c^2)y^2.$$

$$(2). (ac - b^2)x^4 + 2(ad - bc)x^3y + (ae + 2bd - 3c^2)x^2y^2 \\ + 2(be - cd)xy^3 + (ce - d^2)y^4.$$

175. PROP. III.—If any invariant of the quantic in x, y ,

$$U + k(xy' - x'y)^n$$

be formed, the coefficients of the different powers of k , regarded as homogeneous functions of the variables x', y' , are covariants of U .

For, transforming U by linear transformation, let

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n = (A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots A_n)(X, Y)^n;$$

also, if x, y and x', y' be cogredient variables,

$$xy' - x'y = M(XY' - X'Y).$$

Whence

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n + k(xy' - x'y)^n$$

becomes when transformed

$$(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots A_n)(X, Y)^n + kM^n(XY' - X'Y)^n;$$

and forming any invariant ϕ of both these forms, we have

$$(\phi, \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots \phi_p)(1, k)^p = M^p(\Phi, \Phi_1, \Phi_2, \dots \Phi_p)(1, M^p k)^p,$$

proving that

$$\phi_r = M^p \Phi_r,$$

or that ϕ_r is a covariant.

When $(xy' - x'y)^n$ is replaced by $(b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots b_n)(x, y)^n$, we have the following proposition which is established in a similar manner:—

If $\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)$ be an invariant of $(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n$, all the coefficients of k in

$$\phi(a_0 + kb_0, a_1 + kb_1, \dots a_n + kb_n)$$

are invariants of the system of two quantics

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n, \quad (b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots b_n)(x, y)^n;$$

or, which is the same thing,

$$\left(b_0 \frac{d}{da_0} + b_1 \frac{d}{da_1} + \dots + b_n \frac{d}{da_n}\right)^r \phi, \text{ \&c., \&c.,}$$

are invariants of the system.

This proposition may be extended to any number of quantics of the same degree in any number of variables. If, further, U be replaced by a covariant V of the p^{th} degree, we may generate new covariants by forming any invariant of

$$V + k(xy' - x'y)^p.$$

176. PROP. IV.—If $\phi(x, y)$ and $\psi(x, y)$ are homogeneous quantics, the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{d\phi}{dx} & \frac{d\phi}{dy} \\ \frac{d\psi}{dx} & \frac{d\psi}{dy} \end{vmatrix}$$

is a covariant of these quantics.

For, transforming ϕ and ψ by the linear substitution

$$x = \lambda X + \mu Y, \quad y = \lambda' X + \mu' Y,$$

we have

$$\Phi(X, Y) = \phi(x, y), \quad \Psi(X, Y) = \psi(x, y),$$

giving

$$\frac{d\Phi}{dX} = \lambda \frac{d\phi}{dx} + \lambda' \frac{d\phi}{dy}, \quad \frac{d\Psi}{dX} = \lambda \frac{d\psi}{dx} + \lambda' \frac{d\psi}{dy},$$

$$\frac{d\Phi}{dY} = \mu \frac{d\phi}{dx} + \mu' \frac{d\phi}{dy}, \quad \frac{d\Psi}{dY} = \mu \frac{d\psi}{dx} + \mu' \frac{d\psi}{dy}.$$

Whence

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{d\Phi}{dX} & \frac{d\Phi}{dY} \\ \frac{d\Psi}{dX} & \frac{d\Psi}{dY} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \lambda \frac{d\phi}{dx} + \lambda' \frac{d\phi}{dy} & \mu \frac{d\phi}{dx} + \mu' \frac{d\phi}{dy} \\ \lambda \frac{d\psi}{dx} + \lambda' \frac{d\psi}{dy} & \mu \frac{d\psi}{dx} + \mu' \frac{d\psi}{dy} \end{vmatrix},$$

which reduces to

$$M \left(\frac{d\phi}{dx} \frac{d\psi}{dy} - \frac{d\phi}{dy} \frac{d\psi}{dx} \right);$$

and the proposition is proved.

This covariant is called the *Jacobian* of ϕ and ψ , and is often written in the form $J(\phi, \psi)$. The Jacobian of n functions in n variables is a determinant of similar form, and can be shown to be a covariant by an exactly similar proof.

177. Derivation of Invariants and Covariants by Differential Symbols.—If $x_1, y_1; x_2, y_2; x_3, y_3; \dots x_n, y_n$ be a series of cogredient variables (such as, for example, the co-ordinates of n points), the functions $(x_1 y_2 - x_2 y_1), \dots (x_p y_q - x_q y_p)$ are unaltered by linear transformation; and since $\frac{d}{dy_i} - \frac{d}{dx_i}$ are transformed by the same linear transformation as x_i, y_i (see Art. 173), we derive a series of symbols of differentiation, which combined as above give the following:—

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx_1} \frac{d}{dy_2} - \frac{d}{dx_2} \frac{d}{dy_1} \right), \dots \left(\frac{d}{dx_p} \frac{d}{dy_q} - \frac{d}{dx_q} \frac{d}{dy_p} \right), \&c.$$

These symbols may be denoted simply by $(1, 2), \dots (p, q)$, &c.; and by their aid a complete calculus can be constructed for deriving and comparing invariants and covariants. For example, the Jacobian of ϕ, ψ may be written in the form

$$(1, 2) \phi_1 \psi_2,$$

where

$$\phi_1 = \phi(x_1, y_1), \quad \psi_2 = \psi(x_2, y_2),$$

the suffixes being omitted after the differentiation has been performed. Similarly, expanding the symbolic form $(1, 2)^2 \phi_1 \psi_2$, we obtain the covariant

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{dx^2} \frac{d^2 \psi}{dy^2} - 2 \frac{d^2 \phi}{dx dy} \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx dy} + \frac{d^2 \phi}{dy^2} \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2},$$

the distinction between the variables being removed after the differentiation has been performed.

In the investigation by this method of the invariants and covariants of a single quantic, the result is obtained under the symbolic form

$$(1, 2)^\alpha (2, 3)^\beta (3, 4)^\gamma \dots (p, q)^\lambda U_1 U_2 U_3 \dots U_p U_q,$$

where U_j , for example, is used to denote the quantic obtained by substituting x_j and y_j for x and y in U . If after this operation is performed, x and y disappear, we have obtained an invariant; and it is easy to see in this case that the figures $1, 2, 3, \dots p, q$ must all occur exactly n times in terms such as $(i, j)^\kappa$. For example, the formula

$$(1, 2)^n U_1 U_2$$

gives a series of binary invariants for all *even* quantics, the order of the invariant in general being equal to the number of factors U_1, U_2 , &c. In like manner from the formula

$$(12)^{2m} (23)^{2m} (31)^{2m} U_1 U_2 U_3$$

we can derive a series of ternary invariants for quantics of the degree $4m$, the operation $(12)^2 (23)^2 (31)^2$ in the case of the quartic yielding the invariant

$$a_0 a_2 a_4 + 2 a_1 a_2 a_3 - a_0 a_3^2 - a_4 a_1^2 - a_2^3.$$

It may be noticed that this interchange of variables can be accomplished by means of a differential operator; for instance,

$$\left(x_{\kappa} \frac{d}{dx_j} + y_{\kappa} \frac{d}{dy_j}\right)^n U_j = 1.2.3 \dots n U_{\kappa}, \text{ \&c., \&c.}$$

The method here explained of forming invariants and covariants is due to Prof. Cayley.

The above method of calculating invariants and covariants can be easily extended to ternary forms; for, if $x_1 y_1 z_1$, $x_2 y_2 z_2$, $x_3 y_3 z_3$ be cogredient variables, it appears readily by the rule for multiplying determinants that

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 & z_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 & z_2 \\ x_3 & y_3 & z_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

becomes, after transformation, a similar function multiplied by the modulus of transformation; whence, by Art. 173, we derive a series of symbols of differentiation, as follows:—

$$(123) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{d}{dx_1} & \frac{d}{dy_1} & \frac{d}{dz_1} \\ \frac{d}{dx_2} & \frac{d}{dy_2} & \frac{d}{dz_2} \\ \frac{d}{dx_3} & \frac{d}{dy_3} & \frac{d}{dz_3} \end{vmatrix}, \dots (pqr) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{d}{dx_p} & \frac{d}{dy_p} & \frac{d}{dz_p} \\ \frac{d}{dx_q} & \frac{d}{dy_q} & \frac{d}{dz_q} \\ \frac{d}{dx_r} & \frac{d}{dy_r} & \frac{d}{dz_r} \end{vmatrix}.$$

178. Notation of Aronhold and Clebsch.—Aronhold and Clebsch have used with much success a method of forming invariants and covariants which is closely allied to the method given by Cayley. It is therefore desirable to explain their notation, and to show the connexion of the two methods of procedure.

Aronhold denotes symbolically the binary quantic U of the n^{th} degree by $a_x^n = (a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2)^n$. The products $a_1^p a_2^q$ are at once expressible by the coefficients of U when $p + q = n$. Thus,

a_1^n denotes the coefficient of x_1^n in U , $a_1^{n-1}a_2$ the coefficient of $x_1^{n-1}x_2$, and so on; but when the sum of the indices $p + q$ in the product $a_1^p a_2^q$ is not a multiple of n , no interpretation is afforded.

Again, since

$$U = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots n} \left(x_1 \frac{d}{dx_1} + x_2 \frac{d}{dx_2} \right)^n U = (a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2)^n,$$

we may replace a_1 and a_2 in any homogeneous function of a_1 and a_2 of the n^{th} degree by the differential symbols $\frac{d}{dx_1}$ and $\frac{d}{dx_2}$ operating on U , a numerical factor being disregarded.

Moreover, in place of substituting different pairs of variables in U , thus forming U_1, U_2, U_3, \dots , as in Cayley's method, Aronhold writes the quantic U under the various forms $(a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2)^n, (b_1 x_1 + b_2 x_2)^n, (c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2)^n, \dots$ where $a_1^p a_2^{n-p} = b_1^p b_2^{n-p} = c_1^p c_2^{n-p} \dots$, the coefficient of $x_1^p x_2^{n-p}$ in U , the order of the coefficients of any invariant or covariant being the number of the symbols a, b, c, \dots in its expression. In the formation of an invariant the differential symbol $\left(\frac{d}{dx_1} \frac{d}{dy_2} - \frac{d}{dx_2} \frac{d}{dy_1} \right)$ given in Cayley's method is now replaced by $(ab) = (a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1)$ in Aronhold's notation.

Thus, for example, the invariants of the quartic are, in Aronhold's notation, written thus:—

$$2I = (ab)^4, \quad 6J = (bc)^2 (ca)^2 (ab)^2,$$

and the covariants whose leading coefficients are H and G as follows:—

$$2H_x = (ab)^2 a_x^2 b_x^2, \quad G_x = (ab)^2 (ca) a_x b_x^2 c_x^3,$$

which expressions may be verified by replacing (ab) , &c., by $(a_1 b_2 - a_2 b_1)$, &c., then expanding and introducing the coefficients of U , which is practicable since these expressions are homogeneous functions of the 4^{th} degree in each pair of symbols a_1, a_2 . This method, like Cayley's, can be readily applied to a quantic U involving any number of variables.

We now conclude this chapter with some examples selected to illustrate the foregoing theory. The student is referred for further information on this subject to Salmon's *Lessons Introductory to the Modern Higher Algebra*; to Gordan's *Vorlesungen über Invariantentheorie*; and to Clebsch's *Theorie der binären algebraischen Formen*, where a symbolic method is adopted throughout.

EXAMPLES.

1. The discriminant of any quantic is an invariant.
2. The resultant of two quantics is an invariant of the system.
3. From the definitions, Art. 166, prove that all the invariants of the quantic $U(xy' - x'y)$ are covariants of U , the variable being $x : y'$.

Hence derive the covariants of a cubic from the invariants of a quartic expressed in terms of the roots.

4. If $I_1, I_2, I_3, \dots, I_n$ be the same invariant for each of the quantics

$$\frac{\phi(x)}{x - \alpha_1}, \quad \frac{\phi(x)}{x - \alpha_2}, \quad \frac{\phi(x)}{x - \alpha_3}, \quad \dots, \quad \frac{\phi(x)}{x - \alpha_n},$$

of the order ϖ , where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are the roots of $\phi(x) = 0$, prove that

$$\sum_{r=1}^{r=n} I_r (x - \alpha_r)^\varpi$$

is a covariant of $\phi(x)$.

For example, using J_1 to denote the J invariant composed of the four roots $\alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5$ (Art. 167), with similar values for J_2, J_3, J_4, J_5 , we have the following covariant of a quintic:—

$$J_1(x - \alpha_1)^3 + J_2(x - \alpha_2)^3 + J_3(x - \alpha_3)^3 + J_4(x - \alpha_4)^3 + J_5(x - \alpha_5)^3.$$

5. If $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_n$ be the roots of the equation

$$(a_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n)(x, 1)^n = 0;$$

and if

$$a_0^\varpi \phi_1 \phi_2 \dots \phi_m = F(a_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n),$$

where $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m$ are all the values of a rational and integral function of some or all the roots obtained by substitution, find the equation whose roots are the m values of $-\frac{\phi}{\delta\phi}$, given $\delta^2\phi = 0$. (Cf. Exs. 12, 13, 14, p. 88, Vol. I.)

$$\text{Ans. } F(U_0, U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n) = 0.$$

6. Express the identical relation connecting three quadratics in terms of their invariants.

Let

$$U = a_1x^2 + 2b_1xy + c_1y^2,$$

$$V = a_2x^2 + 2b_2xy + c_2y^2,$$

$$W = a_3x^2 + 2b_3xy + c_3y^2;$$

multiplying together the two determinants

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 & 0 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 & 0 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 & 0 \\ y^2 & -xy & x^2 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} c_1 & -2b_1 & a_1 & 0 \\ c_2 & -2b_2 & a_2 & 0 \\ c_3 & -2b_3 & a_3 & 0 \\ x^2 & 2xy & y^2 & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

we have

$$4 \begin{vmatrix} I_{11} & I_{12} & I_{13} & U \\ I_{12} & I_{22} & I_{23} & V \\ I_{13} & I_{23} & I_{33} & W \\ U & V & W & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv 0, \quad \text{where } 2I_{pq} = a_p c_q + a_q c_p - 2b_p b_q.$$

Expanding this determinant we have

$$(I_{22}I_{33} - I_{23}^2)U^2 + (I_{33}I_{11} - I_{31}^2)V^2 + (I_{11}I_{22} - I_{12}^2)W^2 + 2(I_{31}I_{12} - I_{11}I_{23})UV \\ + 2(I_{23}I_{12} - I_{22}I_{31})WU + 2(I_{23}I_{31} - I_{33}I_{12})UV \equiv 0. \quad (1)$$

There are two particular cases worth noticing:—

(1). *When the three quadratics are mutually harmonic.*—In this case $I_{23} = 0$, $I_{31} = 0$, $I_{12} = 0$; and the identical equation assumes the following simple form:—

$$\left(\frac{U}{\sqrt{I_{11}}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{V}{\sqrt{I_{22}}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{W}{\sqrt{I_{33}}}\right)^2 \equiv 0.$$

(2). *When one of the quadratics $W = 0$ determines the foci of the involution of the points given by the other two, $U = 0$, and $V = 0$.*—In this case $I_{13} = 0$, and $I_{23} = 0$; and making this reduction in the general equation (1), we have

$$(I_{12}^2 - I_{11}I_{22})W^2 = I_{33}(I_{22}U^2 - 2I_{12}UV + I_{11}V^2);$$

but from the equations $I_{13} = 0$, and $I_{23} = 0$, we find

$$a_3 = \kappa(a_1b_2), \quad -2b_3 = \kappa(c_1a_2), \quad c_3 = \kappa(b_1c_2);$$

whence

$$4(a_3c_3 - b_3^2) = \kappa^2 \{4(a_1b_2)(b_1c_2) - (c_1a_2)^2\},$$

or

$$I_{33} = \kappa^2 \{I_{11}I_{22} - I_{12}^2\},$$

and reducing, when $\kappa = 1$, or $W \equiv J(U, V)$,

$$-\{J(U, V)\}^2 = I_{22}U^2 - 2I_{12}UV + I_{11}V^2.$$

7. Prove that

$$\Sigma \nabla(a_2, a_3, a_4)(x - a_1)^4$$

is a covariant of a quartic, where $\nabla(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r)$ represents the product of the squared differences of a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r .

8. Prove that the condition that four roots of an equation of the n^{th} degree should determine on a right line a harmonic system of points may be expressed by equating to zero an invariant of the degree $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)$.

9. If $\phi(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)$ be any seminvariant of the quantic $(a_0, a_1, \dots a_n)(x, 1)^n$; prove that $\frac{d\phi}{da_n}$ is also a seminvariant.

10. Prove that the seminvariants

$$a_0a_2 - a_1^2, \quad a_0a_4 - 4a_1a_3 + 3a_2^2, \quad a_0^2a_3 - 3a_0a_1a_2 + 2a_1^3,$$

of the quantic $(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n$ give rise to covariants of the degrees

$$2n-4, \quad 2n-8, \quad 3n-6.$$

11. Prove that the coefficient of the penultimate term in the equation of the squares of the differences of any quantic leads to a covariant of that quantic of the fourth degree in the variables.

12. Prove that the product of two covariants of the same quantic whose sources are ϕ and ψ may be written under the form

$$\phi\psi + xD(\phi\psi) + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} D^2(\phi\psi) + \&c. \dots$$

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13. Prove in particular that the m^{th} power of the quantic

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, 1)^n$$

may be represented by

$$a_n^m + xD(a_n^m) + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} D^2(a_n^m) + \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} D^3(a_n^m) + \&c.$$

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14. Prove from both definitions of a covariant that any covariant of a covariant is a covariant of the original quantic or quantics.

15. If $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots \alpha_m$, and $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots \beta_n$ be the roots of the equations

$$U \equiv (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_m)(x, 1)^m = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad V \equiv (b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots b_n)(x, 1)^n = 0;$$

it is required to derive a covariant of the system U and V from the simplest function of the differences of their roots, viz., $\Sigma(\alpha_p - \beta_q) \equiv n\Sigma\alpha - m\Sigma\beta$.

This question will be solved if we express

$$UV \sum \frac{\alpha_p - \beta_q}{(x - \alpha_p)(x - \beta_q)}$$

in terms of the coefficients of U and V .

For this purpose we have

$$\sum \frac{\alpha_p - \beta_q}{(x - \alpha_p)(x - \beta_q)} \equiv \sum \frac{\alpha}{x - \alpha} \sum \frac{1}{x - \beta} - \sum \frac{\beta}{x - \beta} \sum \frac{1}{x - \alpha};$$

and if U and V be written as homogeneous functions of x and y ,

$$\sum \frac{1}{x - \alpha y} = \frac{d \log U}{dx}, \quad \sum \frac{\alpha}{x - \alpha y} = -\frac{d \log U}{dy}, \quad \&c.$$

Whence, substituting these values in the last equation, we have

$$UV \sum \frac{\alpha_p - \beta_q}{(x - \alpha_p y)(x - \beta_q y)} = \frac{dU}{dx} \frac{dV}{dy} - \frac{dU}{dy} \frac{dV}{dx};$$

which is the Jacobian of U and V . It should be noticed also that the leading coefficient of $J(U, V)$ is $mn(a_0b_1 - a_1b_0)$.

16. Prove that the common factors of two quantics are double factors of their Jacobian $J(U, V)$, when the quantics are of the same degree n .

Let $U = P\phi$, $V = P\psi$, where $P = lx + my$. Forming $J(U, V)$, we find part of it divisible by P^2 , and the part which apparently has only P as a factor may be written as follows (using Euler's theorem of homogeneous functions, and omitting a numerical factor):—

$$\left(x \frac{d\phi}{dx} + y \frac{d\phi}{dy}\right) \left(l \frac{d\psi}{dy} - m \frac{d\psi}{dx}\right) + \left(x \frac{d\psi}{dx} + y \frac{d\psi}{dy}\right) \left(m \frac{d\phi}{dx} - l \frac{d\phi}{dy}\right),$$

and this is identical with $(lx + my) J(\phi, \psi)$.

17. Prove that the $2(n-1)$ double factors of $\lambda U + \mu V$, obtained by varying λ and μ , are the factors of $J(U, V)$, where U and V are both of the n^{th} degree.

18. Find the resultant of two cubics U and V by eliminating dialytically between

$$U = 0, \quad V = 0, \quad \frac{dJ(U, V)}{dx} = 0, \quad \frac{dJ(U, V)}{dy} = 0.$$

19. If

$$(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_p)(x, y)^p,$$

$$(B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_q)(x, y)^q$$

be two covariants of U_n , prove that the leading coefficient of their Jacobian is

$$pq(A_0B_1 - A_1B_0).$$

20. If

$$(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_p)(x, y)^p,$$

$$(B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_p)(x, y)^p,$$

$$(C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots, C_p)(x, y)^p$$

be three covariants of U_n , prove that the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} A_0 & A_1 & A_2 \\ B_0 & B_1 & B_2 \\ C_0 & C_1 & C_2 \end{vmatrix}$$

is a seminvariant.

CHAPTER XVII.

COVARIANTS AND INVARIANTS OF THE QUADRATIC, CUBIC, AND QUARTIC.

179. The Quadratic.—*The quadratic has only one invariant, and no covariant other than the quadratic itself.*

For, if a and β be the roots of the quadratic equation

$$U = ax^2 + 2bx + c = 0,$$

the only functions of their difference which can lead to an invariant and covariant are powers of $a - \beta$ of the type $(a - \beta)^{2p}$; the odd powers of $a - \beta$ not being expressible by the coefficients in a rational form. Whence, expressing

$$U^{2p} \left(\frac{1}{a - x} - \frac{1}{\beta - x} \right)^{2p}$$

by the coefficients, we conclude that the quadratic has only the one distinct invariant $ac - b^2$, and no covariant distinct from U itself.

180. The Cubic and its Covariants.—In the present Article the covariants of the cubic will be discussed as examples of the principles already explained, and in the following Article the definite number of covariants and invariants will be determined.

In the case of the cubic a covariant is obtained from a function of the differences of the roots most simply by substituting

$$\beta\gamma + ax, \gamma a + \beta x, a\beta + \gamma x \text{ for } -a, -\beta, -\gamma,$$

and thus avoiding fractions; for, transforming $a - \beta$, we have

$$\frac{1}{a - x} - \frac{1}{\beta - x} = \frac{-(\beta\gamma + ax) + (\gamma a + \beta x)}{(x - a)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma)};$$

and when fractions are removed, we arrive at the above transformation (the order being equal to the weight in the case of either function of the differences H or G). This mode of transforming functions of the differences will now be applied to the covariants of the cubic.

(1). *The Quadratic Covariant, or Hessian H_x .*

Transforming both sides of the equation

$$a_0^2 (a + \omega\beta + \omega^2\gamma)(a + \omega^2\beta + \omega\gamma) = 9 (a_1^2 - a_0a_2),$$

we have

$$a_0^2 \{ (a + \omega\beta + \omega^2\gamma)x + \beta\gamma + \omega\gamma a + \omega^2a\beta \} \\ \times \{ (a + \omega^2\beta + \omega\gamma)x + \beta\gamma + \omega^2\gamma a + \omega a\beta \} = 9 (U_2^2 - U_3U_1);$$

thus showing that

$$Lx + L_1 \quad \text{and} \quad Mx + M_1 \quad (\text{Art. 59})$$

are the factors of

$$H_x = (a_0a_2 - a_1^2)x^2 + (a_0a_3 - a_1a_2)x + (a_1a_3 - a_2^2),$$

where

$$L_1 = \beta\gamma + \omega\gamma a + \omega^2a\beta, \quad M_1 = \beta\gamma + \omega^2\gamma a + \omega a\beta.$$

From the form of the Hessian in terms of the roots in Art. 167, or from the relations of Art. 43, we conclude that *when a cubic is a perfect cube, each of the coefficients of the Hessian vanishes identically.*

(2). *The Cubic Covariant G_x .*

We have, as in Art. 59,

$$a_0^3 \{ (a + \omega\beta + \omega^2\gamma)^3 + (a + \omega^2\beta + \omega\gamma)^3 \} = -27 (a_0^2a_3 + 2a_1^3 - 3a_0a_1a_2).$$

Transforming both sides of this equation as before, we find

$$a_0^3 \{ (Lx + L_1)^3 + (Mx + M_1)^3 \} = -27 (U^2U_0 + 2U_2^3 - 3U_1U_2U) \\ = 27G_x,$$

where G_x denotes the covariant formed from the function of differences G ; and operating as in Art. 169 on the source derived from G (the sign being changed in order that G may be the leading coefficient), we easily obtain (see Ex. 3, Art. 169)

$$G_x = (a_0^2a_3 - 3a_0a_1a_2 + 2a_1^3)x^3 + 3(a_0a_1a_3 + a_1^2a_2 - 2a_0a_2^2)x^2 \\ - (a_3^2a_0 - 3a_3a_2a_1 + 2a_2^3) - 3(a_3a_2a_0 + a_2^2a_1 - 2a_3a_1^2)x.$$

Resolving $(Lx + L_1)^3 + (Mx + M_1)^3$, we may obtain the factors of G_x ; or, more simply, since the factors of G are $\beta + \gamma - 2a$, $\gamma + a - 2\beta$, $a + \beta - 2\gamma$, the factors of G_x are

$$\frac{1}{\beta - x} + \frac{1}{\gamma - x} - \frac{2}{a - x}, \quad \frac{1}{\gamma - x} + \frac{1}{a - x} - \frac{2}{\beta - x}, \quad \frac{1}{a - x} + \frac{1}{\beta - x} - \frac{2}{\gamma - x},$$

when fractions are removed.

We have obviously the following geometrical interpretation of the equation $G_x = 0$:—If three points A, B, C determined by the equation $U = 0$ be taken on a right line; and three points A', B', C' , such that A' is the harmonic conjugate of A with regard to B and C , B' of B with regard to C and A , and C' of C with regard to A and B ; the points A', B', C' are determined by the equation $G_x = 0$. (Compare Ex. 13, p. 88, Vol. I.)

(3). *Expression of the Cubic as the difference of two cubics.*

This can be effected by means of the factors of the Hessian, as follows:—

$$(Lx + L_1)^3 - (Mx + M_1)^3 = 27U \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{a_0^3}.$$

For, as in Ex. 6, p. 116, Vol. I., we have

$$L^3 - M^3 = \sqrt{-27} (\beta - \gamma) (\gamma - a) (a - \beta).$$

Transforming this equation as before, the first side becomes

$$(Lx + L_1)^3 - (Mx + M_1)^3,$$

and the second side

$$\sqrt{-27} (\beta - \gamma) (\gamma - a) (a - \beta) (x - a) (x - \beta) (x - \gamma).$$

Substituting from previous equations, we have

$$(Lx + L_1)^3 - (Mx + M_1)^3 = 27 \frac{U}{a_0^4} \sqrt{G^2 + 4H^3} = 27 \frac{U \sqrt{\Delta}}{a_0^3}.$$

(4). *Relation between the Cubic and its Covariants.*

The following relation exists:—

$$G_x^2 + 4H_x^3 = \Delta U^2.$$

For, from Ex. 6, p. 116, Vol. I.,

$$a_0^6(\beta - \gamma)^2(\gamma - \alpha)^2(\alpha - \beta)^2 = -27(G^2 + 4H^3) = -27a_0^2\Delta,$$

and transforming this equation as before,

$$a_0^6(\beta - \gamma)^2(\gamma - \alpha)^2(\alpha - \beta)^2(x - \alpha)^2(x - \beta)^2(x - \gamma)^2 = -27(G_x^2 + 4H_x^3);$$

whence
$$\Delta U^2 = G_x^2 + 4H_x^3.$$

(5). *Solution of the Cubic.*

The expression

$$(U\sqrt{\Delta} + G_x)^{\frac{1}{3}} + (U\sqrt{\Delta} - G_x)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

is a linear factor of U .

For from the relations in (2) and (3) we have

$$2a_0^3(Lx + L_1)^3 = 27(U\sqrt{\Delta} + G_x),$$

$$-2a_0^3(Mx + M_1)^3 = 27(U\sqrt{\Delta} - G_x);$$

and since

$$(Lx + L_1) - (Mx + M_1)$$

is a factor of U , the proposition follows.

This form of solution of the cubic is due to Prof. Cayley.

181. Number of Covariants and Invariants of the Cubic.—Before proceeding to the discussion of the quartic, we take up the problem referred to in Art. 162, viz. the determination of the number of independent covariants and invariants, for which purpose we have in the case of the cubic the following proposition:—

The cubic has only two covariants, their leading terms being H and G ; and only one invariant, viz. the discriminant Δ , where

$$a^2\Delta = G^2 + 4H^3, \text{ or } \Delta = a^2d^2 + 4ac^3 - 6abcd + 4db^3 - 3b^2c^2.$$

The proof of this can be derived immediately from the proposition of Art. 162. Let $\phi(a, \beta, \gamma)$ be any integral symmetric function of the *differences* of the roots (of order π), expressible by the coefficients in a rational form. It is proved in the proposition referred to that $a^\pi\phi$ is of the form

$$GF(a, H, \Delta), \text{ or } F(a, H, \Delta),$$

according as ϕ is an odd or even function of the roots. It follows,

therefore, in the first place that there cannot be an invariant of an odd degree in the roots, since $GF(a, H, \Delta)$ does not remain the same function when a, b, c, d are changed into d, c, b, a , respectively; and the only invariant of an even degree must be a power of Δ , since if $F(a, H, \Delta)$ contained a or H besides Δ , it could not remain the same function when the coefficients are similarly interchanged.

Again, the cubic has only two distinct covariants; for it has been proved that every seminvariant $a^\alpha \phi$ is of one of the forms

$$F(a, H, \Delta), \quad \text{or} \quad GF(a, H, \Delta);$$

and therefore the corresponding covariant, formed from the seminvariant as leading term, must be expressible as

$$F(U, H_x, \Delta), \quad \text{or} \quad G_x F(U, H_x, \Delta);$$

that is, every covariant is expressible in a rational and integral form in terms of H_x and G_x , along with U and Δ ; or, in other words, there are only two distinct covariants.

182. **The Quartic. Its Covariants and Invariants.**—

We have shown already that the quartic has two invariants, I and J (Art. 167). From the functions H and G of the differences of the roots we can derive two covariants H_x and G_x , whose leading coefficients are H and G ; for from the relation

$$a_0^2 \Sigma (a - \beta)^2 = 48 (a_0 a_2 - a_1^2)$$

we derive, by the process of Art. 167,

$$a_0^2 \Sigma (a - \beta)^2 (x - \gamma)^2 (x - \delta)^2 = 48 (UU_2 - U_3^2);$$

and, expanding $UU_2 - U_3^2$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} H_x = & (a_0 a_2 - a_1^2) x^4 + 2(a_0 a_3 - a_1 a_2) x^3 + (a_0 a_4 + 2a_1 a_3 - 3a_2^2) x^2 \\ & + 2(a_1 a_4 - a_2 a_3) x + (a_2 a_4 - a_3^2). \end{aligned}$$

In a similar manner, since

$$G = a_0^2 a_3 + 2a_1^3 - 3a_0 a_1 a_2,$$

we obtain the covariant

$$-G_x = U^2 U_1 + 2U_3^3 - 3UU_3U_2,$$

which reduces to the sixth degree; and if it be written as follows:—

$$G_x = A_0x^6 + A_1x^5 + A_2x^4 + A_3x^3 + A_4x^2 + A_5x + A_6,$$

we find, by expanding the above, or more simply, by forming the source A_6 , and performing the successive operations of Art. 169, the following values of the coefficients:—

$$\begin{aligned} A_6 &= -a_4^2a_1 + 3a_4a_3a_2 - 2a_3^3, & A_5 &= -a_4^2a_0 - 2a_4a_3a_1 - 6a_3^2a_2 + 9a_4a_2^2, \\ A_4 &= -5a_4a_3a_0 - 10a_3^2a_1 + 15a_4a_2a_1, & A_3 &= -10a_0a_3^2 + 10a_1^2a_4, \\ A_2 &= 5a_0a_1a_4 + 10a_1^2a_3 - 15a_0a_2a_3, & A_1 &= a_0^2a_4 + 2a_0a_1a_3 + 6a_1^2a_2 - 9a_0a_2^2, \\ A_0 &= a_0^2a_3 - 3a_0a_1a_2 + 2a_1^3. \end{aligned}$$

Here it will be observed that, when A_3 is determined, A_2 , A_1 , and A_0 may be obtained from A_4 , A_5 , and A_6 by changing the suffixes into their complementary values, and altering the sign of the whole, in accordance with what was proved in Art. 168.

We proceed in the following Articles to discuss the leading properties of these two covariants of the quartic.

183. Quadratic Factors of the Sextic Covariant.*—

As the quadratic factors of G_x enter prominently into the following discussion, we proceed in the first place to find expressions for those factors in terms of the roots of the quartic, and to deduce their principal properties.

Since the factors of G , expressed in terms of $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$, are

$$\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta, \quad \gamma + \alpha - \beta - \delta, \quad \alpha + \beta - \gamma - \delta,$$

the factors of G_x are obtained from these by substituting

$\frac{1}{x-\alpha}, \frac{1}{x-\beta}, \frac{1}{x-\gamma}, \frac{1}{x-\delta}$, for $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$, respectively, and multiplying each factor by $\frac{U}{a}$ to remove fractions.

* See a Paper by Prof. Ball, *Quarterly Journal of Mathematics*, vol. vii., p. 368, containing a full and valuable discussion of the various solutions of the biquadratic.

Whence, denoting these factors by u, v, w , we have

$$\left. \begin{aligned} au &= U \left(\frac{1}{x-\beta} + \frac{1}{x-\gamma} - \frac{1}{x-a} - \frac{1}{x-\delta} \right), \\ av &= U \left(\frac{1}{x-\gamma} + \frac{1}{x-a} - \frac{1}{x-\beta} - \frac{1}{x-\delta} \right), \\ aw &= U \left(\frac{1}{x-a} + \frac{1}{x-\beta} - \frac{1}{x-\gamma} - \frac{1}{x-\delta} \right), \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (1)$$

which values of u, v, w , arranged in powers of x , are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} u &= (\beta + \gamma - a - \delta)x^2 - 2(\beta\gamma - a\delta)x + \beta\gamma(a + \delta) - a\delta(\beta + \gamma), \\ v &= (\gamma + a - \beta - \delta)x^2 - 2(\gamma a - \beta\delta)x + \gamma a(\beta + \delta) - \beta\delta(\gamma + a), \\ w &= (a + \beta - \gamma - \delta)x^2 - 2(a\beta - \gamma\delta)x + a\beta(\gamma + \delta) - \gamma\delta(a + \beta) \end{aligned} \right\}; \quad (2)$$

and, consequently, $32G_x = a^3uvw$.

From equations (1) we easily find

$$v = (a - \delta)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma) - (\beta - \gamma)(x - a)(x - \delta),$$

$$w = (a - \delta)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma) + (\beta - \gamma)(x - a)(x - \delta);$$

and from these and similar equations we have

$$\frac{v^2 - w^2}{\mu - \nu} = \frac{w^2 - u^2}{\nu - \lambda} = \frac{u^2 - v^2}{\lambda - \mu} = 4 \frac{U}{a}, \quad (3)$$

where λ, μ, ν have the usual meaning (Ex. 17, Art. 27); and consequently,

$$(\mu - \nu)u^2 = (\lambda - \nu)v^2 - (\lambda - \mu)w^2;$$

whence

$$(\mu - \nu)u^2 = (v\sqrt{\lambda - \nu} + w\sqrt{\lambda - \mu})(v\sqrt{\lambda - \nu} - w\sqrt{\lambda - \mu}).$$

Since, as this identical equation shows, the factors on the second side are both perfect squares, we may assume

$$v\sqrt{\lambda - \nu} + w\sqrt{\lambda - \mu} \equiv 2u_1^2,$$

$$v\sqrt{\lambda - \nu} - w\sqrt{\lambda - \mu} \equiv 2u_2^2;$$

we have, therefore,

$$w\sqrt{\lambda - \mu} = u_1^2 - u_2^2,$$

$$v\sqrt{\lambda - \nu} = u_1^2 + u_2^2,$$

$$u\sqrt{\mu - \nu} = 2u_1u_2;$$

from which values we conclude that u, v, w , the quadratic factors of G_x , are mutually harmonic.

For the geometrical interpretation of the equation $G_x = 0$ see Art. 65.

184. Expression of the Hessian by the Quadratic Factors of G_x .—Since

$$-48 \frac{H_x}{a^2} = \Sigma (a - \beta)^2 (x - \gamma)^2 (x - \delta)^2;$$

combining the terms in pairs, and noticing that

$$\Sigma (\beta - \gamma) (a - \delta) U = 0,$$

$$\Sigma (a - \beta)^2 (x - \gamma)^2 (x - \delta)^2$$

$$= \Sigma \{(\beta - \gamma)(x - a)(x - \delta) + (a - \delta)(x - \beta)(x - \gamma)\}^2,$$

the quantities between brackets being u, v, w , we have

$$-48 \frac{H_x}{a^2} = u^2 + v^2 + w^2,$$

which is the required expression for H_x .

185. Expression of the Quartic itself by the Quadratic Factors of G_x .—From equations (3) a symmetrical value may be obtained for U ; for, substituting in those equations in place of λ, μ, ν their values in terms of the roots ρ_1, ρ_2, ρ_3 of the equation $4\rho^3 - I\rho + J = 0$, we find

$$a^2 (v^2 - w^2) = 16 (\rho_2 - \rho_3) U, \quad a^2 (w^2 - u^2) = 16 (\rho_3 - \rho_1) U,$$

$$a^2 (u^2 - v^2) = 16 (\rho_1 - \rho_2) U,$$

from which equations, by means of the value of H_x in the preceding Article, we obtain

$$(au)^2 = 16 (\rho_1 U - H_x), \quad (av)^2 = 16 (\rho_2 U - H_x), \quad (4)$$

$$(aw)^2 = 16 (\rho_3 U - H_x).$$

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We now make the substitutions

$$u^2 = \Delta_1 X^2, \quad v^2 = \Delta_2 Y^2, \quad w^2 = \Delta_3 Z^2,$$

where $\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \Delta_3$ are the discriminants of u, v, w ; thus replacing u, v, w by three quadratics X, Y, Z whose discriminants are each equal to unity. By means of this transformation the forms of the quadratics are further fixed, and the identical relation connecting their squares (see (1), Ex. 6, p. 137) is expressed in its simplest form. Calculating the discriminants, we find

$$\Delta_1 = (\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta) \{ \beta \gamma (\alpha + \delta) - \alpha \delta (\beta + \gamma) \} - (\beta \gamma - \alpha \delta)^2,$$

with similar values of Δ_2 and Δ_3 ; whence we have

$$\Delta_1 = -(\lambda - \mu)(\lambda - \nu), \quad \Delta_2 = -(\mu - \nu)(\mu - \lambda), \quad \Delta_3 = -(\nu - \lambda)(\nu - \mu).$$

Making these substitutions, the preceding equations become

$$\begin{aligned} (\rho_1 - \rho_2)(\rho_1 - \rho_3) X^2 &= H_x - \rho_1 U, \\ (\rho_2 - \rho_3)(\rho_2 - \rho_1) Y^2 &= H_x - \rho_2 U, \\ (\rho_3 - \rho_1)(\rho_3 - \rho_2) Z^2 &= H_x - \rho_3 U, \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

from which are easily deduced the following values of U and H_x , and the identical equation connecting X, Y, Z :-

$$\begin{aligned} H_x &= \rho_1^2 X^2 + \rho_2^2 Y^2 + \rho_3^2 Z^2, \\ -U &= \rho_1 X^2 + \rho_2 Y^2 + \rho_3 Z^2, \\ 0 &= X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2; \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

where, as has been proved, X, Y, Z are three mutually harmonic quadratics whose discriminants are reduced to unity in each case. The value of G_x may be expressed in terms of X, Y, Z as follows. Since $32G_x = \alpha^3 uvw$, and

$$u^2 v^2 w^2 = (\mu - \nu)^2 (\nu - \lambda)^2 (\lambda - \mu)^2 X^2 Y^2 Z^2 = \frac{256}{\alpha^6} (I^3 - 27J^2) X^2 Y^2 Z^2,$$

we find

$$G_x = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{I^3 - 27J^2} \cdot XYZ.$$

186. **Resolution of the Quartic.**—From the equations

$$\begin{aligned} -U &= \rho_1 X^2 + \rho_2 Y^2 + \rho_3 Z^2, \\ 0 &= X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2, \end{aligned}$$

we find

$$\begin{aligned} U &= (\rho_1 - \rho_2) Y^2 + (\rho_1 - \rho_3) Z^2, \quad U = (\rho_2 - \rho_3) Z^2 + (\rho_2 - \rho_1) X^2, \\ U &= (\rho_3 - \rho_1) X^2 + (\rho_3 - \rho_2) Y^2, \end{aligned}$$

where X^2 , Y^2 , Z^2 have the values determined by equations (5); and breaking up these values of U into their factors, we have three ways of resolving U depending on the solution of the equation

$$4\rho^3 - I\rho + J = 0.$$

The resolution of the quartic has been presented by Professor Cayley in a symmetrical form which may be easily derived from the expressions already given for U and H_x . For, since in general

$l(a_1x^2 + 2b_1xy + c_1y^2) + m(a_2x^2 + 2b_2xy + c_2y^2) + n(a_3x^2 + 2b_3xy + c_3y^2)$ is a perfect square when

$$\Sigma l^2(a_1c_1 - b_1^2) + \Sigma mn(a_2c_3 + a_3c_2 - 2b_2b_3) = 0,$$

$lX + mY + nZ$ is a perfect square when $l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 0$,

X , Y , Z being mutually harmonic, and the discriminants each reduced to unity.

The resolution of U is therefore reduced to finding values of l , m , n such that the general quadratic $lX + mY + nZ$, or

$$\begin{aligned} l\sqrt{\rho_2 - \rho_3}\sqrt{H_x - \rho_1 U} + m\sqrt{\rho_3 - \rho_1}\sqrt{H_x - \rho_2 U} \\ + n\sqrt{\rho_1 - \rho_2}\sqrt{H_x - \rho_3 U}, \end{aligned}$$

being a perfect square, may vanish when U vanishes; or in fact to satisfy the two equations

$$l\sqrt{\rho_2 - \rho_3} + m\sqrt{\rho_3 - \rho_1} + n\sqrt{\rho_1 - \rho_2} = 0, \quad l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 0.$$

These equations are plainly satisfied if

$$\frac{l}{\sqrt{\rho_2 - \rho_3}} = \frac{m}{\sqrt{\rho_3 - \rho_1}} = \frac{n}{\sqrt{\rho_1 - \rho_2}};$$

whence, finally, the squares of the four linear factors of U are

$$(\rho_2 - \rho_3) \sqrt{H_x - \rho_1 U} \pm (\rho_3 - \rho_1) \sqrt{H_x - \rho_2 U} \pm (\rho_1 - \rho_2) \sqrt{H_x - \rho_3 U},$$

which expression when rationalised becomes ΔU^2 .

If it be required to resolve the quartic $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$, it appears in a similar manner that

$$l \sqrt{\rho_2 - \rho_3} \sqrt{H_x - \rho_1 U} + m \sqrt{\rho_3 - \rho_1} \sqrt{H_x - \rho_2 U} \\ + n \sqrt{\rho_1 - \rho_2} \sqrt{H_x - \rho_3 U},$$

being a perfect square, must vanish when $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$ vanishes; or, values of l, m, n must be determined so as to satisfy the equations

$$l^2 + m^2 + n^2 = 0,$$

$$l \sqrt{(\rho_2 - \rho_3)(\kappa - \rho_1 \lambda)} + m \sqrt{(\rho_3 - \rho_1)(\kappa - \rho_2 \lambda)} + n \sqrt{(\rho_1 - \rho_2)(\kappa - \rho_3 \lambda)} = 0.$$

These equations are plainly satisfied if

$$\frac{l}{\sqrt{(\rho_2 - \rho_3)(\kappa - \rho_1 \lambda)}} = \frac{m}{\sqrt{(\rho_3 - \rho_1)(\kappa - \rho_2 \lambda)}} = \frac{n}{\sqrt{(\rho_1 - \rho_2)(\kappa - \rho_3 \lambda)}};$$

whence

$$(\rho_2 - \rho_3) \sqrt{\kappa - \rho_1 \lambda} \sqrt{H_x - \rho_1 U} + (\rho_3 - \rho_1) \sqrt{\kappa - \rho_2 \lambda} \sqrt{H_x - \rho_2 U} \\ + (\rho_1 - \rho_2) \sqrt{\kappa - \rho_3 \lambda} \sqrt{H_x - \rho_3 U}$$

is the square of a linear factor of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$.

187. The Invariants and Covariants of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$.
—Employing the equations (6) of Art. 185, and denoting $X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2$ by V , we may, by adding $-\frac{\lambda I}{6} V$ to $\lambda H_x - \kappa U$, reduce it to the form $R_1 X^2 + R_2 Y^2 + R_3 Z^2$, where $R_1 + R_2 + R_3 = 0$. When this is done, we have the following reduced values of R_1, R_2, R_3 :—

$$3R_1 = \kappa (2\rho_1 - \rho_2 - \rho_3) + \lambda (2\rho_2 \rho_3 - \rho_3 \rho_1 - \rho_1 \rho_2),$$

$$3R_2 = \kappa (2\rho_2 - \rho_3 - \rho_1) + \lambda (2\rho_3 \rho_1 - \rho_1 \rho_2 - \rho_2 \rho_3),$$

$$3R_3 = \kappa (2\rho_3 - \rho_1 - \rho_2) + \lambda (2\rho_1 \rho_2 - \rho_2 \rho_3 - \rho_3 \rho_1).$$

On account of the similarity of the forms

$$\rho_1 X^2 + \rho_2 Y^2 + \rho_3 Z^2 \quad \text{and} \quad R_1 X^2 + R_2 Y^2 + R_3 Z^2,$$

which are of the same type, we calculate the invariants and covariants of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$ by simply changing ρ_1, ρ_2, ρ_3 into R_1, R_2, R_3 in the expressions for the invariants and covariants of U .

Therefore, since

$$I = \frac{2}{3} \{ (\rho_2 - \rho_3)^2 + (\rho_3 - \rho_1)^2 + (\rho_1 - \rho_2)^2 \}, \quad J = -4\rho_1\rho_2\rho_3,$$

and

$$R_2 - R_3 = (\rho_2 - \rho_3)(\kappa - \lambda\rho_1), \quad R_3 - R_1 = (\rho_3 - \rho_1)(\kappa - \lambda\rho_2),$$

$$R_1 - R_2 = (\rho_1 - \rho_2)(\kappa - \lambda\rho_3),$$

we find the following values for the invariants of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$:—

$$I_{(\kappa, \lambda)} = I\kappa^2 - 3J\kappa\lambda + \frac{I^2}{12}\lambda^2,$$

$$J_{(\kappa, \lambda)} = J\kappa^3 - \frac{I^2}{6}\kappa^2\lambda + \frac{IJ}{4}\kappa\lambda^2 - \frac{54J^2 - I^3}{216}\lambda^3.$$

If we form the covariants $H_{(\kappa, \lambda)}$, and $G_{(\kappa, \lambda)}$, of Ω , where

$$4\Omega = 4\kappa^3 - I\kappa\lambda^2 + J\lambda^3$$

(the reducing cubic rendered homogeneous in κ, λ), we find, as M. Hermite has remarked,

$$I_{(\kappa, \lambda)} = -12H_{(\kappa, \lambda)}, \quad J_{(\kappa, \lambda)} = 4G_{(\kappa, \lambda)}.$$

Again, to calculate the Hessian of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$, we reduce

$$R_1^2 X^2 + R_2^2 Y^2 + R_3^2 Z^2$$

by the substitutions

$$\rho_1^3 X^2 + \rho_2^3 Y^2 + \rho_3^3 Z^2 = -\frac{1}{4}IU,$$

$$\rho_1^4 X^2 + \rho_2^4 Y^2 + \rho_3^4 Z^2 = \frac{1}{4}(IH_x + JU),$$

which are obtained from the equations

$$\rho_1^2 = \rho_2\rho_3 + \frac{1}{4}I, \quad \rho_2^2 = \rho_3\rho_1 + \frac{1}{4}I, \quad \rho_3^2 = \rho_1\rho_2 + \frac{1}{4}I,$$

by multiplying first by $\rho_1 X^2, \rho_2 Y^2, \rho_3 Z^2$, respectively, and secondly by $\rho_1^2 X^2, \rho_2^2 Y^2, \rho_3^2 Z^2$, and adding.

In this way we find the following form for the Hessian of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$:—

$$\frac{1}{4} \left\{ H_x \left(4\kappa^2 - \frac{I}{3} \lambda^2 \right) - U \left(\frac{2}{3} I \kappa \lambda - J \lambda^2 \right) \right\};$$

which may be expressed in the form

$$\frac{1}{3} \left(H_x \frac{d\Omega}{d\kappa} + U \frac{d\Omega}{d\lambda} \right),$$

which is a multiple of the Jacobian of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$ and Ω , the variables being κ and λ .

Again, since $I^3 - 27J^2 = 16 (\rho_2 - \rho_3)^2 (\rho_3 - \rho_1)^2 (\rho_1 - \rho_2)^2$,

and $G_x = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{I^3 - 27J^2} \cdot XYZ$;

transforming ρ_1, ρ_2, ρ_3 into R_1, R_2, R_3 , we find

$$I^3_{(\kappa, \lambda)} - 27J^2_{(\kappa, \lambda)} = \Omega^2 (I^3 - 27J^2), \quad G_{(\kappa, \lambda)x} = \Omega G_x,$$

We have therefore expressed the invariants and covariants of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$ in terms of the invariants and covariants of U .

188. Number of Covariants and Invariants of the Quartic.—We proceed to prove the following proposition, which determines the number of these functions:—

The quartic has only the two distinct invariants I and J , and two distinct covariants whose leading coefficients are H and G .

This proposition asserts that every invariant is a *rational* and *integral* function of I and J , and every covariant a *rational* and *integral* function of U, H_x, G_x, I, J . The following discussion is founded on principles similar to those already employed in the case of the cubic. It is proved in the proposition of Art. 163, if $\phi(a, \beta, \gamma, \delta)$ be any integral function of the differences of the roots expressible by the coefficients in a rational form, that $\alpha^x \phi(a, \beta, \gamma, \delta)$ may be expressed by the forms

$$GF(a, H, I, J), \quad \text{or} \quad F(a, H, I, J),$$

according as ϕ is odd or even.

Now, if $F(a, H, I, J)$ be an invariant, a and H must disappear, since if they were present this function could not remain the same when the coefficients are written in direct or reverse order. Similarly, no odd function such as $GF(a, H, I, J)$ can give an invariant. It follows that every invariant is a function of I and J .

Again, the quartic has only two distinct covariants; for we have proved that every function of the differences $a^\varpi \phi$ is of one of the forms

$$F(a, H, I, J) \quad \text{or} \quad GF(a, H, I, J).$$

Now, considering these forms as the leading coefficients of covariants, it has been proved that every covariant is expressible as

$$F(U, H_x, I, J) \quad \text{or} \quad G_x F(U, H_x, I, J);$$

that is, every covariant is expressible in terms of H_x and G_x , along with U, I , and J ; and this is the proposition which was required to be proved.

EXAMPLES.

1. If U be any cubic, and G_x its cubic covariant, prove that the Hessian of $\lambda U + \mu G_x$ has the same roots as the Hessian of U , λ and μ being constants.

2. Prove that any covariant of a quantic, whose roots are $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$, satisfies the equation

$$\Sigma \alpha^2 \frac{d\phi}{d\alpha} - \varpi s_1 \phi = x \frac{d\phi}{dy},$$

where ϖ is the degree of ϕ in the coefficients of the quantic, and $s_1 = \Sigma \alpha$.

3. If a quantic have a square factor, prove that the same square factor enters its Hessian.

4. If a quartic have a square factor, prove that the covariant G_x has that factor as a quintuple factor, and give the values of u, v, w in this case.

5. If $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$ be two quantics of the n^{th} degree, the roots of $\phi(x)$ being $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_n$, show that their Jacobian may be expressed as follows:—

$$J(\phi, \psi) \equiv n\phi^2 \sum_{r=1}^{r=n} \frac{\psi(\alpha_r)}{\phi'(\alpha_r)} \frac{1}{(x - \alpha_r)^2};$$

and in particular prove that the sextic covariant G_x of the quartic $\phi(x)$ may be written under the form

$$\{\phi(x)\}^2 \Sigma \frac{\phi'(\alpha)}{(x - \alpha)^2}.$$

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6. Prove for a quartic U that the sum of any two of the quadrics

$$\frac{(x-\alpha)^2}{\phi'(\alpha)}, \quad \frac{(x-\beta)^2}{\phi'(\beta)}, \quad \frac{(x-\gamma)^2}{\phi'(\gamma)}, \quad \frac{(x-\delta)^2}{\phi'(\delta)}$$

is a factor of the sextic covariant of U expressed in terms of the roots.

7. If Δ be the discriminant of

$$\phi(x) \equiv a_0(x-\alpha_1)(x-\alpha_2)(x-\alpha_3)\dots(x-\alpha_n),$$

prove that the equation which has for roots the n values of the irrational covariant

$$z_r \equiv \frac{\sqrt{\Delta}}{\phi'(a_r)} (x - a_r)^{n-2}$$

can be expressed in terms of the covariants and invariants of $\phi(x)$ in a *rational* form when $\sqrt{\Delta}$ is adjoined; and show that the values of z when $n=3$ and $n=4$, respectively, are numerical multiples of the solutions of the cubic and quartic given by Cayley (Arts. 180, 186).

8. Applying the principles of Art. 188, determine without calculation the form of the sextic covariant of the quartic $\lambda U + \mu H_x$.

9. Calculate the values of H , I , G , J for the Hessian of a quartic.

$$\text{Ans. } H' = \frac{3a_0J - HI}{12}, \quad I' = \frac{I^2}{12}, \quad G' = -\frac{JG}{4}, \quad J' = \frac{54J^2 - I^3}{216}.$$

10. Find the two conditions that the Hessian of the quartic wanting its second term should be a perfect square, and show that both contain J as a factor.

$$\text{Ans. } JG = 0, \quad a_0J(2HI - 3a_0J) = 0.$$

11. A seminvariant of the equation

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)(x, 1)^n = 0$$

arranged in powers of a_n being

$$\phi = A_p + pA_{p-1}a_n + \frac{p \cdot p-1}{1 \cdot 2} A_{p-2}a_n^2 + \dots + A_0a_n^p;$$

prove that $DA_j = -na_{n-1}A_{j-1}$, and hence show that if $\psi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r)$ is a seminvariant, so also is $\psi(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_r)$.

12. Hence show how the final coefficient of the equation of squared differences can be found for any equation when it is known for the equation of next lower order.

13. If

$$\phi(a_n) \equiv (A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_p)(a_n, 1)^p,$$

$$\psi(a_n) \equiv (B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_q)(a_n, 1)^q$$

be two seminvariants of U_n arranged in powers of a_n , prove that any seminvariant of the system $\phi(x)$ and $\psi(x)$ is a seminvariant of U_{n-1} .

14. If

$$I_1 \equiv (A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_p)(a_n, 1)^p,$$

$$I_2 \equiv (B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_q)(a_n, 1)^q$$

be two invariants of $U_n \equiv (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)(x, y)^n$, prove that the resultant of I_1 and I_2 when a_n is eliminated is the leader of a covariant of U_{n-1} of the degree

$$(n+1)pq - p\pi_2 - q\pi_1$$

in the variables, π_1 and π_2 being the orders of I_1 and I_2 .

15. If the discriminant of a biquadratic be written under the form

$$(A_0, A_1, A_2, A_3)(a_4, 1)^3,$$

prove that the discriminant of this cubic is

$$27^2 G^2 \Delta_3^3,$$

where Δ_3 is the discriminant of $(a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3)(x, 1)^3$; and knowing A_3 , find A_2 , A_1 , and A_0 .

16. Form the equation whose roots are

$$\phi(a_1), \phi(a_2), \phi(a_3), \dots, \phi(a_n),$$

where $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ are the roots of $f(x) = 0$, the resultant R of $f(x)$ and $\phi(x)$ being given.

Change the last coefficient b_m of $\phi(x)$ into $b_m - \rho$, and substitute this value for b_m in the equation $R = 0$.

17. If $\phi(x) \equiv (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)(x, y)^n$, whose roots are a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n ; and if

$$\psi(x) \equiv A_0(x - \beta_1)(x - \beta_2) \dots (x - \beta_{n-2}),$$

a covariant of $\phi(x)$ of the degree $n - 2$, prove that any symmetric function of the quantities

$$\frac{\psi(a_1)}{\phi'(a_1)}, \frac{\psi(a_2)}{\phi'(a_2)}, \dots, \frac{\psi(a_n)}{\phi'(a_n)}$$

can be expressed by invariants.

(HERMITE.)

Denoting by R the resultant of $\phi(x)$ and $\lambda\phi'(x) + \psi(x)$ expressed in terms of the roots of $\phi(x)$, we can prove this proposition simply by showing that the values of λ given by the equation $R = 0$ are not altered (except in sign) when for the roots α and the roots β their reciprocals are written, the inversion of the roots α involving the substitution of a_{n-r} for a_r and the inversion of the roots β .

18. Prove that U and H_x expressed in terms of u_1 and u_2 of Art. 183 are both of the form

$$(A, B, A)(u_1^2, u_2^2)^2.$$

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19. Prove that the quartic

$$f(x, y) \equiv (a, b, c, d, e)(x, y)^4$$

may be reduced by a linear transformation $x = \lambda X + \mu Y$, $y = \lambda' X + \mu' Y$ to the form

$$f(\lambda, \lambda') X^4 + f(\mu, \mu') Y^4 + 6\rho M^2 X^2 Y^2,$$

where

$$4\rho^3 - I\rho + J = 0, \quad M \equiv \lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu. \quad (\text{SYLVESTER.})$$

20. Retaining the notation of the last example, prove that $\frac{\lambda}{\lambda'}$ and $\frac{\mu}{\mu'}$ are the roots of one of the factors u, v, w of the sextic covariant of the quartic (Art. 183).

21. Prove that

$$\frac{d^3 G_x}{dx^3} = 60 (U_1^2 U_4 - U_0 U_3^2),$$

the reducing cubic of Art. 65 (cf. Ex. 5, p. 132, Vol. I.).

22. Prove that

$$\rho_1^p X^2 + \rho_2^p Y^2 + \rho_3^p Z^2 = \Pi_{p-2} H_x - \Pi_{p-1} U,$$

where Π_{p-1}, Π_{p-2} are sums of homogeneous products.

23. Prove

$$(27J^2 - I^3)(Y^2 Z^2 + Z^2 X^2 + X^2 Y^2) \equiv I^2 U^2 - 36JUH_x + 12IH_x^2,$$

the second side of this identity being the Hessian of G_x .

24. If

$$U \equiv \xi^4 + \eta^4 + 6m\xi^2\eta^2,$$

where

$$\xi = \lambda x + \mu y, \quad \eta = \lambda' x + \mu' y, \quad M = \lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu;$$

prove that

$$I \equiv M^4 (1 + 3m^2), \quad J \equiv M^6 (m - m^3),$$

$$M^2 = \frac{J}{I} \frac{1 + 3m^2}{m - m^3}, \quad 4(M^2 m)^3 - I(M^2 m) + J = 0,$$

$$H_x \equiv M^2 \{m(\xi^4 + \eta^4) + (1 - 3m^2)\xi^2\eta^2\},$$

$$G_x \equiv M^3 (1 - 9m^2)\xi\eta(\xi^4 - \eta^4).$$

25. Show (1) that there are two real and distinct ways of making the transformation of Example 19 when the roots of the quartic are all real or all imaginary, and (2) only one real way when two roots are real and two imaginary.

Calculate the values of $\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \Delta_3$ of Art. 185, and observe that in the first case the reducing cubic has three real roots, and in the second one real and two imaginary roots.

CHAPTER XVIII.

COVARIANTS AND INVARIANTS OF COMBINED FORMS.

189. **Combined Forms.**—In the present chapter we propose to illustrate the theory of the covariants and invariants of systems of two or more quantics (Art. 166) by the simplest cases, viz.—(1) two quadratics, (2) quadratic and cubic, and (3) two cubics. We give in each case an enumeration of the forms which have been shown to be fundamental by the investigations of Clebsch, Gordan, and Sylvester, showing how these forms may be obtained, but without attempting the reduction of all other forms dependent on them. In estimating the number of covariants and invariants of a combined system, the independent forms which belong to each quantic by itself are counted among the total number belonging to the system. It will be found convenient to use the term *special* to designate those forms which belong to the two quantics *regarded as a system* (and which therefore contain the coefficients of both), as distinguished from those which belong to the quantics taken separately.

Invariants and covariants are both included under the name *concomitant*, which is applied to any function whose relations to the quantics are independent of linear transformation.

190. **Two Quadratics.**—Let the two quadratics be

$$U \equiv a_1x^2 + 2b_1xy + c_1y^2, \quad V \equiv a_2x^2 + 2b_2xy + c_2y^2.$$

This system has one special invariant, and one special covariant. The invariant may be obtained by forming the discriminant of $\lambda U + \mu V$, which is found to be

$$\lambda^2 (a_1c_1 - b_1^2) + \lambda\mu (a_1c_2 + a_2c_1 - 2b_1b_2) + \mu^2 (a_2c_2 - b_2^2),$$

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all the coefficients of $\lambda : \mu$ being invariants (Art. 175); whence we have the special invariant

$$a_1c_2 + a_2c_1 - 2b_1b_2 = 2I_{12}. \quad (\text{Ex. 3, Art. 171.})$$

The vanishing of this function of the coefficients is the condition that the pencil of lines $UV = 0$ should be harmonic, the rays represented by one equation being conjugate to those represented by the other.

The special covariant is the Jacobian of the system, viz.,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1x + b_1y & b_1x + c_1y \\ a_2x + b_2y & b_2x + c_2y \end{vmatrix} = J(U, V),$$

which may be written in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} y^2 & -xy & x^2 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix},$$

obtained by eliminating dialytically the variables from the quantics $U, V, (xy' - x'y)^2$, the form $xy' - x'y$ being a universal concomitant of all binary quantics (Art. 175). This form for $J(U, V)$ can also be arrived at by eliminating λ and μ from the equations obtained by comparing the coefficients in the identity $\lambda U + \mu V = (xy' - x'y)^2$.

The square of J is connected with U and V by the following important relation:—

$$-J^2(U, V) = I_{22}U^2 - 2I_{12}UV + I_{11}V^2, \quad (1)$$

which may be derived immediately from the equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} y^2 - xy & x^2 \\ a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} x^2 & 2xy & y^2 \\ c_1 - 2b_1 & a_1 \\ c_2 - 2b_2 & a_2 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 0 & U & V \\ U & 2I_{11} & 2I_{12} \\ V & 2I_{12} & 2I_{22} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Again, it is easy to see that $J(UV)$ gives the double lines of the system $\lambda U + \mu V$, for when $\lambda U + \mu V$ is a perfect square

$$\lambda^2 I_{11} + 2\lambda\mu I_{12} + \mu^2 I_{22} = 0,$$

and eliminating $\lambda : \mu$ by means of the equation $\lambda U + \mu V = 0$, the double lines are determined by the equation

$$I_{22}U^2 - 2I_{12}UV + I_{11}V^2 = 0,$$

or
$$J^2(U, V) = 0.$$

Every concomitant of a system of two quadratics may be expressed in terms of the six forms $U, V, J(U, V), I_{11}, I_{12}, I_{22}$, all of which are constituents of the formula (1) written above. The resultant of U, V , for example, is

$$4(I_{11}I_{22} - I_{12}^2), \quad (\text{Art. 150.})$$

which is also the discriminant of $J(U, V)$, and the dialytic eliminant of $U, V, J(U, V)$.

191. Quadratic and Cubic.—Let the two quantities be

$$U = (a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3, \quad V = (a', b', c')(x, y)^2,$$

the covariants of U being denoted as usual by H_x and G_x . The system has one special cubic covariant, the Jacobian of U and V , or $J(U, V)$; and one special quadratic covariant viz., $J(H_x, V)$.

In writing down the remaining covariants it will be found convenient to adopt the following notation. We use U with suffix D to denote the result of substituting in U the differential symbols $D_y, -D_x$ for x, y , respectively, where $D_x = \frac{d}{dx}, D_y = \frac{d}{dy}$; hence

$$U_D = (a, b, c, d)(D_y, -D_x)^3, \quad V_D = (a', b', c')(D_y, -D_x)^2,$$

with a corresponding notation in other cases.

There are four linear covariants, which may now be written as follows:—

$$V_D(U), \quad V_D(G_x), \quad U_D(V^2), \quad G_D(V^2).$$

The first of these written at length is

$$(ac' - 2bb' + ca')x + (bc' - 2cb' + da')y.$$

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There are three special invariants. The first is the intermediate invariant of the system of two quadratics H_x and V , viz.,

$$(ac - b^2) c' - (ad - bc) b' + (bd - c^2) a' = I_{21},$$

where the notation I_{pq} is used to signify that the invariant is of the p^{th} degree in the coefficients of U , and the q^{th} in the coefficients of V . The second invariant is the resultant R of U and V . It is of the second degree in the coefficients of U , and third in the coefficients of V , and may be expressed in many ways by the methods of elimination of Chap. XIV. The general form of any invariant I_{23} of this type is

$$I_{23} = lR + m (a'c' - b'^2) I_{21},$$

l and m being any numbers.

The third invariant (which is skew) is of the type I_{43} , and may be obtained by operating with V three times in succession on the product of U and G_x ; it can be written in the form

$$V_D^3 (UG_x).$$

There are, therefore, nine special forms belonging to this system; and if to these be added U and V , and the independent covariants and invariants of each, we obtain the complete list of fifteen forms, viz., three cubic, three quadratic, and four linear covariants, and five invariants.

192. Two Cubics. Let the cubics be

$$U = (a, b, c, d) (x, y)^3, \quad V = (a', b', c', d') (x, y)^3,$$

the covariants of U being represented as before by H_x and G_x , and those of V by H'_x and G'_x .

Of this system there is one quartic covariant, the Jacobian of U and V , viz.,

$$J(U, V) = (ab') x^4 + 2(ac') x^3y + \{(ad') + 3(bc')\} x^2y^2 \\ + 2(bd') xy^3 + (cd') y^4;$$

and two special cubic covariants, viz. :—

$$J(U, H'_x), \quad \text{and} \quad J(V, H_x).$$

There are four special quadratic covariants. If we form the Hessian of $\lambda U + \mu V$, i.e. substitute $\lambda a + \mu a'$, $\lambda b + \mu b'$, &c., for a , b , &c. in H_x , we find

$$\lambda^2 H_x + \lambda \mu M_x + \mu^2 H'_x.$$

The intermediate Hessian M_x here obtained is the first special quadratic covariant; and the remaining three are obtained by taking the Jacobians in pairs of H_x , M_x , and H'_x .

There are six linear covariants which may be written as follows:—

$$H_D(V), H_D(G'_x), H'_D(U), H'_D(G_x), U_D(H'^2_x), V_D(H^2_x).$$

It is easily seen that $H_D(U)$ and $H_D(G_x)$ vanish identically, for U and G_x may be brought by linear transformation to the forms $ax^3 + dy^3$, and $ad(ax^3 - dy^3)$, respectively, and H_x to the form $adxy$ (cf. Art. 180).

There are in all seven invariants, five of which may be obtained by forming the discriminant of $\lambda U + \mu V$, the coefficients of the different powers of $\lambda : \mu$ being invariants. If the discriminant is

$$\lambda^4 \Delta + 4\lambda^3 \mu \Theta + 6\lambda^2 \mu^2 \Phi + 4\lambda \mu^3 \Theta' + \mu^4 \Delta',$$

we obtain in this way three special invariants Θ , Φ , Θ' , the extreme coefficients being the discriminants of U and V . The two remaining invariants are of odd orders in the coefficients of each cubic. They are denoted by P and Q , and may be defined as follows:—

$$P \equiv \frac{1}{6} U_D(V) = (ad') - 3(bc'), \quad (1)$$

$$27Q \equiv P^3 - R, \quad (2)$$

where R is the resultant of U and V as obtained by Bezout's method (Art. 155), viz.

$$R \equiv (ad')^3 - 18(ab')(cd')(ad') + 9(bd')(ca')(ad') \\ + 27(ca')^2(cd') + 27(ab')(bd')^2 - 81(ab')(bc')(cd').$$

Substituting this value of R in (2), we find

$$-Q \equiv (bc')^3 + (ca')^2(cd') + (ab')(bd')^2 - (bc')^2(ad') \\ - 3(ab')(bc')(cd') - (ad')(ab')(cd').$$

Any invariant comprised in the formula $lP^3 + mR$, where l and m are numbers, being of the type I_{33} , might have been selected instead of Q as the fundamental invariant of this type; reasons will appear subsequently for the selection which has been made (see Ex. 4, p. 163).

If to the special forms enumerated be added those which belong to each cubic, we have in all twenty-six fundamental forms, viz. one quartic, six cubic, six quadratic, and six linear, covariants; and seven invariants.

Several of the covariants and invariants enumerated in the preceding Articles will be found expressed in terms of the roots of the two equations of the combined system among the examples which follow on the next page.

193. Combinants.—Combined forms of the same degree give rise to a series of invariants and covariants whose coefficients are expressible by determinants of the form (a, b_s) , such as occur in the resultant obtained by Bezout's method (Art. 155). These concomitants are unaltered, save by a factor of the form $(\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^r$, when the quantics U, V are changed into $\lambda U + \mu V, \lambda' U + \mu' V$. Such invariants have been called *combinants*, and the corresponding covariants may be termed in like manner *combining covariants*. Of the former we have examples in P and Q of Art. 192; and the Jacobians of such forms are examples of the latter class of concomitants.

It may be noticed that the I and J invariants of the bi-quadratic in $\lambda : \mu$ of the preceding Article, viz. the discriminant of $\lambda U + \mu V$, are combinants of the system of two cubics; for in fact a linear transformation of λ and μ is equivalent to a transformation of U and V of the kind considered in the present Article, and therefore any function of the invariants Δ, Θ, Φ , &c., unaltered by such transformation, must be a combinant. It can be verified that these invariants may be expressed in terms of P and Q as follows (see Salmon's *Higher Algebra*, Art. 218):—

$$I = 3P(P^3 - 24Q), \quad J = -P^6 + 36P^3Q - 216Q^2.$$

EXAMPLES.

1. If α, β, γ , and α', β' are the roots of the equations

$$U \equiv ax^3 + 3bx^2 + 3cx + d = 0, \quad V \equiv a'x^2 + 2b'x + c' = 0,$$

express in terms of the coefficients the function

$$(\beta - \gamma)^2 (\alpha - \alpha') (\alpha - \beta') + (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\beta - \alpha') (\beta - \beta') + (\alpha - \beta)^2 (\gamma - \alpha') (\gamma - \beta').$$

Denoting this function by ϕ , we easily find

$$-a^2 a' \phi = 9 \{ a' (bd - c^2) - b' (ad - bc) + c' (ac - b^2) \}.$$

The given function of the roots is an invariant of the system, for it involves all the roots of the cubic in the second degree, and all the roots of the quadratic in the first degree. If, in fact, we make the substitutions of Art. 166, and multiply by $U^2 V$ to make the function integral, the result will not contain x , and is therefore an invariant (Art. 191).

The geometrical interpretation of the equation $\phi = 0$ is that the quadratic V should form with the Hessian of U a harmonic system.

2. Using the same notation as in the preceding question, find the condition that one pair of roots of $U = 0$ should form a harmonic range with the roots of $V = 0$.

$$\text{Ans. } R + 9 (a'c' - b'^2) I_{21} = 0.$$

3. If α, β, γ , and α', β', γ' be the roots of the cubics

$$U \equiv ax^3 + 3bx^2 + 3cx + d = 0, \quad V \equiv a'x^3 + 3b'x^2 + 3c'x + d' = 0,$$

express the following function (when multiplied by aa') in terms of the coefficients, and prove that it is an invariant of the system:—

$$(\alpha - \alpha') (\beta - \beta') (\gamma - \gamma') + (\alpha - \beta') (\beta - \gamma') (\gamma - \alpha') + (\alpha - \gamma') (\beta - \alpha') (\gamma - \beta');$$

or, differently arranged,

$$(\alpha - \alpha') (\beta - \gamma') (\gamma - \beta') + (\alpha - \beta') (\beta - \alpha') (\gamma - \gamma') + (\alpha - \gamma') (\beta - \beta') (\gamma - \alpha').$$

$$\text{Ans. } 3P, \text{ where } P \equiv (ad' - a'd) - 3(bc' - b'c). \quad (\text{Art. 192.})$$

4. Retaining the notation of the preceding example, prove that if κ can be determined so as to make $U + \kappa V$ a perfect cube, the following relation exists among the roots of the two cubics:—

$$(\beta - \gamma) \sqrt[3]{\phi(\alpha)} + (\gamma - \alpha) \sqrt[3]{\phi(\beta)} + (\alpha - \beta) \sqrt[3]{\phi(\gamma)} = 0,$$

where $\phi(x) \equiv V$, and α, β, γ are the roots of $U = 0$; and prove that in this case the invariant Q (Art. 192) vanishes.

The relation among the roots is obtained immediately by substituting α, β, γ for x in the identity $U + \kappa V \equiv (lx + m)^3$, and eliminating κ, l, m from the resulting equations.

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Rationalizing, we have

$$\left\{ \frac{(\beta - \gamma)^3 \phi(\alpha) + (\gamma - \alpha)^3 \phi(\beta) + (\alpha - \beta)^3 \phi(\gamma)}{(\beta - \gamma)(\gamma - \alpha)(\alpha - \beta)} \right\}^3 - 27\phi(\alpha)\phi(\beta)\phi(\gamma) = 0.$$

Substituting for $\phi(\alpha)$, $\phi(\beta)$, $\phi(\gamma)$; introducing the relations obtained by comparing the different powers of λ in the following identity:—

$$\Sigma (\alpha + \lambda)^3 (\beta - \gamma)^3 \equiv 3 (\alpha + \lambda) (\beta + \lambda) (\gamma + \lambda) (\beta - \gamma) (\gamma - \alpha) (\alpha - \beta);$$

and expressing the result in terms of the coefficients, we find

$$\{3P\}^3 - 27R = 0, \quad \text{or} \quad Q = 0 \quad (\text{Art. 192}).$$

We now give several different forms under which the invariant Q presents itself. Since $U + \kappa V$ is a perfect cube, we have (Art. 43)—

$$\frac{a + \kappa a'}{b + \kappa b'} = \frac{b + \kappa b'}{c + \kappa c'} = \frac{c + \kappa c'}{d + \kappa d'}. \quad (1)$$

Equating these fractions separately to $-\kappa'$, we find

$$\left. \begin{aligned} a + \kappa a' + \kappa' b + \kappa \kappa' b' &= 0, \\ b + \kappa b' + \kappa' c + \kappa \kappa' c' &= 0, \\ c + \kappa c' + \kappa' d + \kappa \kappa' d' &= 0; \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (2)$$

and solving for κ , κ' , $\kappa \kappa'$, we may eliminate them, and find the condition in the form

$$Q \equiv \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} b' & c' & d' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{vmatrix} - \begin{vmatrix} a' & b' & c' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} b & c & d \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Again, eliminating κ and κ^2 from the equations (1) without introducing κ' , we obtain another form for Q , viz.,

$$Q \equiv \begin{vmatrix} ac - b^2 & ac' + a'c - 2bb' & a'd' - b'^2 \\ ad - bc & ad' + a'd - b'c - b'c & a'd' - b'c' \\ bd - c^2 & bd' + b'd - 2cc' & b'd' - c'^2 \end{vmatrix}.$$

This form of Q can be readily obtained also by expressing the condition that the Hessian of $\lambda U + \mu V$ (Art. 192) should vanish identically—a condition which is fulfilled when $\lambda U + \mu V$ is a perfect cube.

Finally, writing the equations (2) in the form

$$\frac{a + \kappa' b}{a' + \kappa' b'} = \frac{b + \kappa' c}{b' + \kappa' c'} = \frac{c + \kappa' d}{c' + \kappa' d'},$$

and eliminating κ' and κ'^2 , we have a third form for Q , viz.,

$$Q \equiv \begin{vmatrix} (ab') & (ac') & (bc') \\ (ac') & (ad') + (bc') & (bd') \\ (bc') & (bd') & (cd') \end{vmatrix}.$$

The constituents in this form are the same minor determinants which occur in Bezout's form of the resultant; and it may be easily verified that this value of Q agrees with the expanded form written in Art. 192.

5. Find the condition that the roots of two cubics should determine a system in involution.

The condition in terms of the roots is expressed by equating to zero the product of six determinants of the type

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha + \alpha' & \alpha\alpha' \\ 1 & \beta + \beta' & \beta\beta' \\ 1 & \gamma + \gamma' & \gamma\gamma' \end{vmatrix}.$$

6. Express the condition of the preceding example in terms of the coefficients of the cubics.

The roots of one cubic being conjugates to the roots of the other, the two are reducible to the following forms:—

$$\begin{aligned} U &\equiv ax^3 + 3bx^2 + 3cx + d, \\ V &\equiv dx^3 + 3\kappa cx^2 + 3\kappa^2 bx + \kappa^3 a; \end{aligned}$$

and writing the discriminant of $\rho U + V$ in general in the form (Art. 192)—

$$\rho^4 \Delta + 4\rho^3 \Theta + 6\rho^2 \Phi + 4\rho \Theta' + \Delta',$$

we find in this case

$$\Theta' = \kappa^3 \Theta, \quad \Delta' = \kappa^6 \Delta;$$

whence the required condition

$$\Delta \Theta'^2 - \Delta' \Theta^2 = 0.$$

7. Express in terms of the coefficients of the cubics of Ex. 3 the following covariant of the system:—

$$aa' \Sigma \{ 3(\beta - \beta')(\gamma - \gamma') + 3(\beta - \gamma')(\gamma - \beta') + (\beta - \gamma)(\beta' - \gamma') \} (x - \alpha)(x - \alpha').$$

$$\text{Ans. } 18 \{ (ac' + a'c - 2bb')x^2 + (ad' + a'd - bc' - b'c)x + (bd' + b'd - 2cc') \}.$$

8. To reduce the two cubics

$$U \equiv (a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3, \quad V \equiv (a', b', c', d')(x, y)^3$$

to the forms

$$U = \frac{1}{4} \frac{dF}{dX}, \quad V = \frac{1}{4} \frac{dF}{dY},$$

by means of a linear transformation

$$x = \lambda X + \mu Y, \quad y = \lambda' X + \mu' Y,$$

the coefficients in which are to be determined in terms of the coefficients of the given cubics.

$$\text{Let} \quad F = (A, B, C, D, E)(X, Y)^4;$$

then

$$U \equiv (a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3 = (A, B, C, D)(X, Y)^3,$$

$$V \equiv (a', b', c', d')(x, y)^3 = (B, C, D, E)(X, Y)^3.$$

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Now, substituting the differential symbols $D_y, -D_x$ for x and y , and $\frac{1}{M}D_Y, -\frac{1}{M}D_X$ for X and Y in the Hessian of both forms of U , we find

$$\left| \begin{array}{ccc} D_{x^2}^2 & D_{xy}^2 & D_{y^2}^2 \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{array} \right| = \frac{1}{M^4} \left| \begin{array}{ccc} D_{X^2}^2 & D_{XY}^2 & D_{Y^2}^2 \\ A & B & C \\ B & C & D \end{array} \right|;$$

whence, operating on both forms of V , we have

$$\psi(x, y) = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} a' & b' & c' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{array} \right| x + \left| \begin{array}{ccc} b' & c' & d' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{array} \right| y = \frac{JY}{M^4}.$$

Similarly

$$\phi(x, y) = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{array} \right| x + \left| \begin{array}{ccc} b & c & d \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{array} \right| y = \frac{JX}{M^4}.$$

where ϕ and ψ are covariants of U and V , and J is the ternary invariant of F .

Again, since

$$\phi(D_y, -D_x) = \frac{J}{M^5} D_Y, \quad \text{and} \quad -\psi(D_y, -D_x) = \frac{J}{M^5} D_X,$$

performing the operation

$$\phi(D_y, -D_x) \psi(x, y), \quad \text{or} \quad \psi(D_y, -D_x) \phi(x, y),$$

on equivalent forms, we have

$$Q = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{ccc} b' & c' & d' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{array} \right| - \left| \begin{array}{ccc} a' & b' & c' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{array} \right| \left| \begin{array}{ccc} b & c & d \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{array} \right| = \frac{J^2}{M^9}.$$

We are now in a position to determine the coefficients of F and the values of $\lambda, \mu, \lambda', \mu'$ in terms of the coefficients of U and V .

For we have from former equations

$$Qx = \left| \begin{array}{ccc} b' & c' & d' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{array} \right| \phi - \left| \begin{array}{ccc} b & c & d \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{array} \right| \psi,$$

$$Qy = - \left| \begin{array}{ccc} a' & b' & c' \\ a & b & c \\ b & c & d \end{array} \right| \phi + \left| \begin{array}{ccc} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \\ b' & c' & d' \end{array} \right| \psi;$$

whence, substituting these values of x and y in U and V , we find

$$Q^3 U = (A_0, B_0, C_0, D_0) (\phi, \psi)^3,$$

$$Q^3 V = (B_0, C_0, D_0, E_0) (\phi, \psi)^3,$$

and, therefore,

$$Q^3 U = \frac{1}{4} \frac{dF_0}{d\psi}, \quad Q^3 V = \frac{1}{4} \frac{dF_0}{d\psi}, \quad \text{where } F_0 = (A_0, B_0, C_0, D_0, E_0) (\phi, \psi)^4;$$

also

$$\frac{A}{A_0} = \frac{B}{B_0} = \frac{C}{C_0} = \frac{D}{D_0} = \frac{E}{E_0} = \frac{M^{15}}{J^3}.$$

9. Determine the invariants of F_0 in the preceding example, and hence infer the form of the resultant of two cubics.

We have, from the equations of Ex. 8,

$$J^{10} = M^{45} J_0, \quad \text{and} \quad J^6 I = M^{30} I_0;$$

and, substituting differential symbols for x, y and X, Y in both forms of V , and operating on U , we find

$$P \equiv ad' - a'd - 3(b\phi' - b'\phi) = \frac{I}{M^3},$$

which equation, along with the equation $Q = \frac{J^2}{M^9}$, enables us by previous results to express I_0 and J_0 in terms of P and Q in the following way:—

$$I_0 = PQ^3, \quad \text{and} \quad J_0 = Q^5.$$

From these results we derive the relations

$$\frac{I_0^3}{J_0^2} = \frac{I^3}{J^2} = \frac{P^3}{Q};$$

from which it follows that when $I^3 = 27J^2$, we have $P^3 = 27Q$; but the first relation holds when F has a square factor, which necessitates U and V having a common factor; whence we infer that $P^3 - 27Q$, being of the proper degree and weight, is the resultant of the cubics U and V (cf. Art. 192).

10. If $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta; \alpha', \beta', \gamma', \delta'$ be the roots of the biquadratics

$$(a, b, c, d, e) (x, 1)^4 = 0, \quad (a', b', c', d', e') (x, 1)^4 = 0,$$

prove

$$aa'\Sigma (\alpha - \alpha') (\beta - \beta') (\gamma - \gamma') (\delta - \delta') = 24 \{ ae' + a'e - 4(bd' + b'd) + 6ac' \},$$

and show that this function is an invariant of the system.

11. Prove that the following function of the roots of a biquadratic and quadratic gives an invariant of the system, and determine its geometrical interpretation:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \beta + \gamma & \beta\gamma \\ 1 & \alpha + \delta & \alpha\delta \\ 1 & \alpha' + \beta' & \alpha'\beta' \end{vmatrix} \times \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \gamma + \alpha & \gamma\alpha \\ 1 & \beta + \delta & \beta\delta \\ 1 & \alpha' + \beta' & \alpha'\beta' \end{vmatrix} \times \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha + \beta & \alpha\beta \\ 1 & \gamma + \delta & \gamma\delta \\ 1 & \alpha' + \beta' & \alpha'\beta' \end{vmatrix} = \phi.$$

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The geometrical interpretation of the equation $\phi = 0$ is, that the two conjugate foci of some one of the three involutions determined by the biquadratic form along with the quadratic an harmonic system.

12. Prove that the following functions of the roots of a biquadratic and quadratic give invariants of the system, and determine their values in terms of the coefficients:—

$$a_0 b_0^2 \Sigma (\alpha' - \alpha) (\alpha' - \beta) (\beta' - \gamma) (\beta' - \delta),$$

$$a_0^2 b_0^2 \Sigma (\alpha - \beta)^2 (\gamma - \alpha') (\delta - \beta') (\gamma - \beta') (\delta - \alpha').$$

13. If $f(x)$ and $\phi(x)$ be two quartics with unequal roots, the roots of $f(x)$ being $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$, prove that the condition that a quartic of the system $\lambda f(x) + \mu \phi(x)$ can have two square factors may be expressed as follows:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha^2 & \sqrt{\phi(\alpha)} \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 & \sqrt{\phi(\beta)} \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma^2 & \sqrt{\phi(\gamma)} \\ 1 & \delta & \delta^2 & \sqrt{\phi(\delta)} \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

14. Determine the condition in terms of the coefficients that the quartic $\lambda f(x) + \mu \phi(x)$ may have two square factors.

In this case the Hessian of $\lambda f(x) + \mu \phi(x) \equiv \kappa \{ \lambda f(x) + \mu \phi(x) \}$, from which identity we have five equations to eliminate $\lambda^2, \lambda\mu, \mu^2, \kappa\lambda, \kappa\mu$; thus obtaining an invariant I_{44} , of the 4th degree in the coefficients of each equation.

15. Prove that the resultant of two quartics becomes a perfect square when the invariant I_{44} vanishes.

Rendering rational the determinant in Ex. 13, and dividing by the product of the squares of the differences of the roots, we find, when the coefficients are introduced,

$$I_{44} = I^2_{22} - 64R; \text{ whence, \&c., \&c.}$$

16. The discriminant of $\lambda U + \mu V$, where U and V are cubics $(a, b, c, d)(x, y)^3$, $(a', b', c', d')(x, y)^3$, being written as in Art. 192, resolve into its factors the covariant

$$(\Delta, \Theta, \Phi, \Theta', \Delta') (V, -U)^4.$$

The leading coefficient of this covariant is easily obtained by forming the discriminant of $aV - a'U$ directly; it is

$$(ab')^2 \{ 4 (ab') (ad'') - 3 (ad')^2 \},$$

which may be written in the form $2A^2 \{ PA + 6(AC - B^2) \}$, where A, B, C are the first three coefficients of the Jacobian; and, consequently, the given covariant is expressed as follows:—

$$2J^2(U, V) \{ PJ(U, V) + 6 \text{ Hessian of } J(U, V) \}.$$

17. Express the invariants of the Jacobian of two cubics in terms of P and Q .

$$\text{Ans. } 12I = P^2, \quad 216J = 54Q - P^3.$$

CHAPTER XIX.

TRANSFORMATIONS.

SECTION I.—TSCHIRNHAUSEN'S TRANSFORMATION.

194. Under the general heading of this chapter we purpose collecting several propositions which could not have been conveniently given elsewhere, and which are of importance in connexion with the subjects discussed in the foregoing pages. We commence with a general theorem relating to rational transformations.

Theorem.—*The most general rational algebraic transformation of a root of an equation of the n^{th} degree can be reduced to an integral transformation of the degree $n - 1$ at most.*

For every rational function of a root a_r of the equation $f(x) = 0$ is of the form

$$\frac{\chi(a_r)}{\psi(a_r)},$$

where χ and ψ are integral functions; also,

$$\frac{\chi(a_r)}{\psi(a_r)} = \chi(a_r) \frac{\psi(a_1) \dots \psi(a_{r-1}) \psi(a_{r+1}) \dots \psi(a_n)}{\psi(a_1) \psi(a_2) \dots \psi(a_{n-1}) \psi(a_n)},$$

and the denominator $\psi(a_1) \psi(a_2) \dots \psi(a_n)$, being a symmetric function of the roots of $f(x) = 0$, can be expressed as a rational function of the coefficients. Whence $\frac{\chi(a_r)}{\psi(a_r)}$ is reduced to an integral form.

Moreover, the numerator of the former fraction is a symmetric function of the roots of the equation $\frac{f(x)}{x - a_r} = 0$, and may consequently be expressed as a rational function of the coefficients of that equation; that is, in terms of a_r and the coefficients of $f(x)$.

Now, denoting by $F(a_r)$ this integral form of $\frac{\chi(a_r)}{\psi(a_r)}$, we have by division

$$F(a_r) = Qf(a_r) + \phi(a_r) = \phi(a_r),$$

where $\phi(a_r)$ does not exceed the degree $n - 1$; which proves the proposition.

In the particular cases of the quadratic and cubic it follows that the most general rational function of a root can be reduced to a linear function, and a quadratic function of that root, respectively. In the case of the cubic this quadratic function may be reduced to another form which is often useful, as follows:—Denoting the quadratic function by $\psi(\theta)$, and dividing the cubic $f(\theta)$ by $\psi(\theta)$, we have

$$f(\theta) = (q_0 + q_1\theta) \psi(\theta) + r_0 + r_1\theta = 0,$$

proving that

$$\psi(\theta) = -\frac{r_0 + r_1\theta}{q_0 + q_1\theta};$$

whence it appears that *the most general transformation of a root of a cubic may be reduced to a homographic transformation.*

In connexion with the proposition here established it is easy to justify the remarks made in Arts. 59, 66, relative to the solutions of the cubic and the biquadratic equations. With this object in view, let ϕ and ψ be two rational functions of n quantities a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n (which may be considered as the roots of an equation), each having only p values when the roots are interchanged in every way. Denoting these values of both functions obtained by the same substitutions by

$$\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots, \phi_p,$$

$$\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots, \psi_p,$$

we have, for every integer j ,

$$\phi_1\psi_1^j + \phi_2\psi_2^j + \phi_3\psi_3^j + \dots + \phi_p\psi_p^j = T_j;$$

a symmetric function of the roots, since it is the sum of all the possible values which $\phi\psi^j$ can take.

Substituting for x in these equations each of the roots of the equation $f(x) = 0$, and adding, we find, if S_1, S_2, S_3 , &c., denote the sums of the powers of the roots of the required equation,

$$S_1 = na_0 + a_1s_1 + a_2s_2 + \dots + a_{n-1}s_{n-1},$$

$$S_2 = nb_0 + b_1s_1 + b_2s_2 + \dots + b_{n-1}s_{n-1},$$

$$\cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot$$

$$S_n = nl_0 + l_1s_1 + l_2s_2 + \dots + l_{n-1}s_{n-1}.$$

Now, expressing $s_1, s_2, \dots s_{n-1}$ in terms of the coefficients of $f(x)$, we have $S_1, S_2, \dots S_n$ determined in terms of the coefficients of $\phi(x)$ and $f(x)$; we are also enabled by Art. 80 to express the coefficients of the equations whose roots are $\phi(a_1), \phi(a_2), \dots \phi(a_n)$ in terms of $S_1, S_2, \dots S_n$, and therefore finally in terms of the coefficients of $\phi(x)$ and $f(x)$; thus theoretically the transformation is completed.

196. Second Method of forming the Transformed Equation.—There is another way of finding the final equation in ϕ by elimination, which we now give. Since

$$a_0 - \phi + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} = 0,$$

if this equation be multiplied by $x, x^2, \dots x^{n-1}$, and the exponents of x reduced below n by means of the equation $f(x) = 0$, we have in all n equations to eliminate dialytically the $n - 1$ quantities, $x, x^2, \dots x^{n-1}$. We thus obtain the transformed equation in the form of a determinant of the n^{th} order, ϕ entering into the diagonal constituents only. For example, if $f(x) = x^n - 1$, we obtain the transformed equation in the following form:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_0 - \phi & a_1 & a_2 & \cdot & \cdot & a_{n-1} \\ a_{n-1} & a_0 - \phi & a_1 & \cdot & \cdot & a_{n-2} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \cdot & \cdot & a_0 - \phi \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Although these methods of performing Tschirnhausen's

transformation appear simple, yet if they be applied to particular cases, the result usually appears in a complicated form. Professor Cayley, by choosing a form of the transformation suggested by M. Hermite, was enabled to take advantage of the theory of covariants, and thus to complete the transformation for the cubic, quartic, and quintic. We shall content ourselves with showing in an elementary way how Cayley's results for the cubic and quartic may be obtained.

197. Tschirnhausen's Transformation applied to the Cubic.—Let the cubic equation

$$ax^3 + 3bx^2 + 3cx + d = 0$$

be written under the form

$$z^3 + 3Hz + G = 0;$$

and let it be transformed by the substitution

$$y = \lambda + \kappa z + z^2.$$

If z_1, z_2, z_3 be the roots of the cubic, and y_1, y_2, y_3 the corresponding values of y , we have

$$\left. \begin{aligned} y_2 - y_3 &= (z_2 - z_3)(\kappa - z_1), \\ y_3 - y_1 &= (z_3 - z_1)(\kappa - z_2), \\ y_1 - y_2 &= (z_1 - z_2)(\kappa - z_3), \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (1)$$

and consequently

$$\left. \begin{aligned} 2y_1 - y_2 - y_3 &= (2z_1 - z_2 - z_3) \kappa + (2z_2z_3 - z_3z_1 - z_1z_2), \\ 2y_2 - y_3 - y_1 &= (2z_2 - z_3 - z_1) \kappa + (2z_3z_1 - z_1z_2 - z_2z_3), \\ 2y_3 - y_1 - y_2 &= (2z_3 - z_1 - z_2) \kappa + (2z_1z_2 - z_2z_3 - z_3z_1). \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (2)$$

Wherefore, if the equation in y with the second term removed be

$$Y^3 + 3H'Y + G' = 0,$$

we have from equations (1) and (2)

$$H' = H_\kappa, \quad G' = G_\kappa,$$

where H_κ and G_κ are the Hessian and cubic covariant of $\kappa^3 + 3H_\kappa + G$;

and the transformation is therefore completed, since $y_1 + y_2 + y_3$ can be easily determined.

198. Tschirnhausen's Transformation applied to the Quartic.—In this case we do not attempt to form directly the transformed quartic, but prove the following theorem, which shows how this transformation may be resolved into two others.

Theorem.—*Tschirnhausen's transformation changes a quartic U into one having the same invariants as $lU + mH_2$, and therefore in general reducible to the latter form by linear transformation.*

To prove this, let the quartic

$$x^4 + p_1x^3 + p_2x^2 + p_3x + p_4 = 0$$

be transformed by the substitution

$$y = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3.$$

If x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 be the roots of the quartic, and y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4 the corresponding values of y , we have

$$\frac{y_2 - y_3}{x_2 - x_3} = a_1 + a_2(x_2 + x_3) + a_3(x_2^2 + x_2x_3 + x_3^2),$$

$$\frac{y_1 - y_4}{x_1 - x_4} = a_1 + a_2(x_1 + x_4) + a_3(x_1^2 + x_1x_4 + x_4^2).$$

From these equations we proceed to show that

$$\frac{(y_2 - y_3)(y_1 - y_4)}{(x_2 - x_3)(x_1 - x_4)} = P_0 + Q_0(x_2x_3 + x_1x_4),$$

where P_0 and Q_0 involve the roots of the quartic symmetrically.

In the first place, we find

$$(x_2^2 + x_2x_3 + x_3^2)(x_1^2 + x_1x_4 + x_4^2) = p_2^2 - p_1p_3 + p_4 - p_2\lambda,$$

where λ has its usual value, viz. $x_2x_3 + x_1x_4$; and secondly, since

$$x_2^2 + x_2x_3 + x_3^2 = (x_2 + x_3)^2 - x_2x_3, \text{ \&c.,}$$

we find again

$$(x_2 + x_3)(x_1^2 + x_1x_4 + x_4^2) + (x_1 + x_4)(x_2^2 + x_2x_3 + x_3^2) = p_3 - p_1p_2 + p_1\lambda.$$

Finally, since the other terms in the product are obviously of the same form as $P_0 + Q_0\lambda$, we have proved that

$$\frac{(y_2 - y_3)(y_1 - y_4)}{(x_2 - x_3)(x_1 - x_4)} = P_0 + Q_0(x_2x_3 + x_1x_4);$$

whence

$$(y_2 - y_3)(y_1 - y_4) = (\nu - \mu)(P_0 + Q_0\lambda).$$

Now, introducing ρ_1, ρ_2, ρ_3 in place of λ, μ, ν , this and the similar equations preserve their forms; whence, altering P_0 and Q_0 into similar quantities, we obtain the equations

$$(y_2 - y_3)(y_1 - y_4) = 4(\rho_3 - \rho_2)(P - Q\rho_1),$$

$$(y_3 - y_1)(y_2 - y_4) = 4(\rho_1 - \rho_3)(P - Q\rho_2),$$

$$(y_1 - y_2)(y_3 - y_4) = 4(\rho_2 - \rho_1)(P - Q\rho_3),$$

which lead at once to the invariants of the transformed quartic; and comparing their values with the invariants of $\kappa U - \lambda H_x$ given in Art. 187, the theorem follows at once.

199. Reduction of the Cubic to a Binomial form by Tschirnhausen's Transformation.—Let the cubic

$$ax^3 + 3bx^2 + 3cx + d$$

be reduced to the form $y^3 - V$ by the transformation

$$y = q + px + x^2.$$

If x_1, x_2, x_3 be the roots of the given cubic, and y_1 a root of the transformed cubic, we have the following equations to determine p and q :—

$$x_1^2 + px_1 + q = y_1,$$

$$x_2^2 + px_2 + q = \omega y_1,$$

$$x_3^2 + px_3 + q = \omega^2 y_1;$$

from which we find

$$p = -\frac{x_1^2 + \omega x_2^2 + \omega^2 x_3^2}{x_1 + \omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_3}, \quad q = -\frac{1}{3}(s_2 + ps_1).$$

Adding $x_1 + x_2 + x_3$ to this value of p , we have

$$p + x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = -\frac{x_2x_3 + \omega x_3x_1 + \omega^2 x_1x_2}{x_1 + \omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_3};$$

it follows (Ex. 25, p. 57, Vol. I.) that there are only two ways of completing this transformation, as the values of p, q ultimately depend on the solution of the Hessian of the cubic.

200. Reduction of the Quartic to a Trinomial Form by Tschirnhausen's Transformation.—Let the quartic

$$ax^4 + 4bx^3 + 6cx^2 + 4dx + e$$

be reduced to the form $y^4 + Py^2 + Q$, in which the second and fourth terms are absent, by the transformation

$$y = q + px + x^2.$$

If x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 be the roots of the quartic; also y_1, y_2 two *distinct* roots of the transformed quartic, we have the following equations to determine p and q :—

$$x_1^2 + px_1 + q = y_1, \quad x_3^2 + px_3 + q = y_2,$$

$$x_2^2 + px_2 + q = -y_1, \quad x_4^2 + px_4 + q = -y_2;$$

from which we find

$$p = -\frac{x_1^2 + x_2^2 - x_3^2 - x_4^2}{x_1 + x_2 - x_3 - x_4}, \quad q = -\frac{1}{4}(s_2 + ps_1).$$

And, adding $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4$ to this value of p , we have

$$p + x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4 = \frac{2(x_1x_2 - x_3x_4)}{x_1 + x_2 - x_3 - x_4};$$

hence, by Ex. 5, p. 132, Vol. I., it follows that there are three ways of reducing the quartic to the proposed form, the determination of which ultimately depends on the solution of the reducing cubic of the quartic.

201. Removal of the Second, Third, and Fourth Terms from an Equation of the n^{th} Degree.—We begin by proving the following proposition, which we shall subsequently apply:—

A homogeneous function V of the second degree in n quantities $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots x_n$ can be expressed in general as the sum of n squares.

To prove this, let V , arranged in powers of x_1 , take the following form:—

$$V = P_1 x_1^2 + 2Q_1 x_1 + R_1,$$

where P_1 does not contain $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$; also Q_1 and R_1 are linear and quadratic functions, respectively, of $x_2, x_3, \dots x_n$. We have then

$$V = \left(\sqrt{P_1} x_1 + \frac{Q_1}{\sqrt{P_1}} \right)^2 + R_1 - \frac{Q_1^2}{P_1};$$

also, assuming

$$V_1 = R_1 - \frac{Q_1^2}{P_1} = P_2 x_2^2 + 2Q_2 x_2 + R_2,$$

where P_2 is a constant, and Q_2 and R_2 do not contain x_1 and x_2 , we have similarly

$$V_1 = \left(\sqrt{P_2} x_2 + \frac{Q_2}{\sqrt{P_2}} \right)^2 + R_2 - \frac{Q_2^2}{P_2};$$

so that

$$V = \left(\sqrt{P_1} x_1 + \frac{Q_1}{\sqrt{P_1}} \right)^2 + \left(\sqrt{P_2} x_2 + \frac{Q_2}{\sqrt{P_2}} \right)^2 + R_2 - \frac{Q_2^2}{P_2}.$$

Proceeding in this way, we arrive ultimately at $R_{n-1} - \frac{Q_{n-1}^2}{P_{n-1}}$, which is equal to $P_n x_n^2$; and the proposition is proved.

Now, returning to the original problem, let the equation be

$$x^n + p_1 x^{n-1} + p_2 x^{n-2} + \dots + p_n = 0;$$

and, putting

$$y = ax^4 + \beta x^3 + \gamma x^2 + \delta x + \varepsilon,$$

let the transformed equation be

$$y^n + Q_1 y^{n-1} + Q_2 y^{n-2} + \dots + Q_n = 0,$$

where, by Art. 195, $Q_1, Q_2, \dots Q_r, \dots$ are homogeneous functions of the first, second, $\dots r^{th}$ degrees in $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon$.

Now, if $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon$ can be determined so that

$$Q_1 = 0, \quad Q_2 = 0, \quad Q_3 = 0,$$

the problem will be solved. For this purpose, eliminating ϵ from Q_2 and Q_3 , by substituting its value derived from $Q_1 = 0$, we obtain two homogeneous equations

$$R_2 = 0, \quad R_3 = 0,$$

of the second and third degrees in $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$; and by the proposition proved above, we may write R_2 under the form

$$u^2 - v^2 + w^2 - t^2,$$

which is satisfied by putting $u = v$ and $w = t$. From these simple equations we find $\gamma = l\alpha + m\beta$, and $\delta = l_1\alpha + m_1\beta$; and substituting these values in $Q_3 = 0$, we have a cubic equation to determine the ratio $\beta : \alpha$. Whence, giving any one of the quantities $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon$ a definite value, the rest are determined, and the equation is reduced to the form

$$y^n + Q_4 y^{n-4} + Q_5 y^{n-5} + \dots + Q_n = 0.$$

In a similar way we may remove the coefficients Q_1, Q_2, Q_4 , by solving an equation of the fourth degree.

Applying this method to the quintic, we may reduce it to either of the trinomial forms

$$x^5 + Px + Q, \quad x^5 + Px^2 + Q;$$

or again, changing x into $\frac{1}{x}$, to either of the forms

$$x^5 + Px^3 + Q, \quad x^5 + Px^4 + Q.$$

In this investigation we have followed M. Serret (see his *Cours d'Algèbre Supérieure*, Vol. I., Art. 192).

SECTION II.—HERMITE'S AND SYLVESTER'S THEOREMS.

202. Homogeneous Function of Second Degree expressed as Sum of Squares.—We have already shown, in a general way (Art. 201), that a homogeneous function of the second degree in the variables may be reduced to a sum of squares, no hypothesis being made as to the nature of the coefficients of the function considered. We now return to the consideration of this problem when the coefficients of the function are supposed to be all *real*; and we proceed to determine, in magnitude and sign, the coefficients of the squares in the transformed function.

Let $F(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n)$ be a homogeneous function of the second degree in n variables with real coefficients; and let us suppose that it is reduced by the method of Art. 201 to the form

$$\begin{aligned} & p_1 (x_1 + a_2 x_2 + a_3 x_3 + \dots + a_n x_n)^2 \\ & + p_2 (x_2 + b_3 x_3 + \dots + b_n x_n)^2 \\ & + p_3 (x_3 + \dots + c_n x_n)^2 \\ & \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \\ & + p_n x_n^2, \end{aligned}$$

where all the coefficients of this new form are real.

Making now the linear transformation

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= x_1 + a_2 x_2 + a_3 x_3 + a_4 x_4 + \dots + a_n x_n, \\ X_2 &= \quad \quad x_2 + b_3 x_3 + b_4 x_4 + \dots + b_n x_n, \\ X_3 &= \quad \quad \quad x_3 + c_4 x_4 + \dots + c_n x_n, \\ &\cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \\ X_n &= \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad x_n, \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$F(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots x_n) = p_1 X_1^2 + p_2 X_2^2 + p_3 X_3^2 + \dots + p_n X_n^2.$$

Since the modulus of this transformation is equal to 1, the discriminants of both these forms of F must be absolutely equal.

Denoting, therefore, the discriminant of F by Δ_n , we have

$$\Delta_n = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n;$$

and similarly, when the variables $x_{j+1}, x_{j+2}, \dots x_n$ are made to vanish in both forms of F , we have

$$\Delta_j = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_j.$$

Now, giving j the values 1, 2, 3, &c., we find

$$p_1 = \Delta_1, \quad p_2 = \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta_1}, \quad p_3 = \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta_2}, \quad \dots \quad p_n = \frac{\Delta_n}{\Delta_{n-1}};$$

and the coefficients are determined in terms of the discriminant of the original quadratic form in n variables and the discriminants of the forms in $n-1, n-2$, &c., variables derived from the given form by causing one, two, &c., of the variables to vanish in succession in the manner just explained.

Again, since the constants in the form $F(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n)$ are in number $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$ less than in a form composed of a sum of squares of n linear functions of n variables, we learn that F can be reduced to a sum of squares in an infinity of ways. It is most important, however, to observe that *in whatever way the transformation is made, provided it is real, the number of coefficients (affecting these squares) which have a given sign is always the same.* This theorem, which is due to Jacobi, is easily proved; for suppose the contrary possible, and let

$$F = p_1 X_1^2 + p_2 X_2^2 + \dots + p_n X_n^2 = q_1 Y_1^2 + q_2 Y_2^2 + \dots + q_n Y_n^2,$$

where the number of positive coefficients on both sides of this identity is not the same. Making all the terms positive, by transferring those affected with negative signs to the opposite sides of the identity, we shall have a sum of l squares identically equal to a sum of m squares, where m is greater than l . Now, substituting such values for $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$ that each of the l squares may vanish (which may be done in an infinity of ways), we find a sum of m squares identically equal to zero, which is impossible.

203. **Hermite's Theorem.**—The principles explained in the preceding Article have been applied by Hermite to the determination of the number of real roots of an equation $f(x) = 0$ comprised within given limits. The special form of the function F which he makes use of for this purpose is

$$\sum_{r=1}^{r=n} \frac{1}{a_r - \rho} (x_1 + a_r x_2 + a_r^2 x_3 + \dots + a_r^{n-1} x_n)^2,$$

in which x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are any variables in number equal to the degree of the equation; and r takes all values from 1 to n inclusive, the roots of the equation being a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n ; also ρ is any arbitrary parameter.

This form is plainly a symmetric function of the roots of the equation $f(x) = 0$; and as the coefficients of this equation are supposed to be real, F will be also real, when expressed in terms of these coefficients and ρ , provided the parameter ρ be given any real value. If the roots $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ are not all real, the assumed form of F will not be obtained by a real transformation; but it is easy to deduce from it, as follows, another form which will be so obtained.

If a_1 and a_2 be a pair of conjugate imaginary roots, we may write

$$a_1 = r_0 (\cos \alpha + i \sin \alpha), \quad a_2 = r_0 (\cos \alpha - i \sin \alpha).$$

Denoting for shortness $x_1 + a_r x_2 + a_r^2 x_3 + \dots + a_r^{n-1} x_n$ by Y_r , and substituting these values in Y_1 and Y_2 , we find

$$Y_1 = U + iV, \quad Y_2 = U - iV,$$

where U and V are real; also putting

$$\frac{1}{a_1 - \rho} = r (\cos \phi + i \sin \phi), \quad \frac{1}{a_2 - \rho} = r (\cos \phi - i \sin \phi),$$

the part of the function F depending on a_1 and a_2 , viz.,

$$\frac{Y_1^2}{a_1 - \rho} + \frac{Y_2^2}{a_2 - \rho},$$

becomes

$$r \left\{ \left(\cos \frac{\phi}{2} + i \sin \frac{\phi}{2} \right)^2 (U + iV)^2 + \left(\cos \frac{\phi}{2} - i \sin \frac{\phi}{2} \right)^2 (U - iV)^2 \right\},$$

which may be also written as the difference of the squares

$$2r \left(U \cos \frac{\phi}{2} - V \sin \frac{\phi}{2} \right)^2 - 2r \left(U \sin \frac{\phi}{2} + V \cos \frac{\phi}{2} \right)^2;$$

proving that two imaginary conjugate roots introduce into F two real squares, one of which has a positive and the other a negative coefficient.

We now state Hermite's theorem as follows:—*Let the equation $f(x) = (x - a_1)(x - a_2) \dots (x - a_n) = 0$ have real coefficients and unequal roots: if then by a REAL substitution we reduce*

$$\frac{Y_1^2}{a_1 - \rho} + \frac{Y_2^2}{a_2 - \rho} + \frac{Y_3^2}{a_3 - \rho} + \dots + \frac{Y_n^2}{a_n - \rho}, \quad (1)$$

where $Y_r = x_1 + a_r x_2 + a_r^2 x_3 + \dots + a_r^{n-1} x_n,$

to a sum of squares, the number of squares having positive coefficients will be equal to the number of pairs of imaginary roots of the equation $f(x) = 0$, augmented by the number of real roots greater than ρ .

This theorem follows at once from what has preceded if we consider separately the parts of the function (1) which refer to real roots and to imaginary roots, for obviously there is a positive square for every root greater than ρ ; and we have proved that every pair of conjugate imaginary roots leads to a positive and negative real square, without affecting the other squares independent of these roots.

The number of real roots between any two numbers ρ_1 and ρ_2 may be readily estimated. For, denoting in general by P_j the number of positive squares in F when $\rho = \rho_j$, by N_j the number of roots of the equation $f(x) = 0$ greater than ρ_j , and by $2I$ the number of imaginary roots, we have

$$P_1 = N_1 + I, \quad P_2 = N_2 + I;$$

whence

$$N_1 - N_2 = P_1 - P_2,$$

proving that the number of real roots between ρ_1 and ρ_2 is equal to the difference between the number of positive squares when ρ has the values ρ_1 and ρ_2 , respectively.

The number here determined may be shown to depend on a very important series of functions connected with the given equation. In order to derive these functions, we consider F under the form (Art. 202)

$$\Delta_1 X_1^2 + \frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta_1} X_2^2 + \frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta_2} X_3^2 + \dots + \frac{\Delta_n}{\Delta_{n-1}} X_n^2.$$

The number P expresses the number of coefficients in this form which are positive, or, which is the same thing, the number of the following quantities which are negative :—

$$-\frac{\Delta_1}{1}, -\frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta_1}, -\frac{\Delta_3}{\Delta_2}, \dots, -\frac{\Delta_n}{\Delta_{n-1}}. \quad (2)$$

We proceed now to calculate $\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \dots, \Delta_j, \dots, \Delta_n$ in terms of ρ and the roots of the equation $f(x) = 0$; and as the method is the same in every case, it will be sufficient to calculate Δ_3 , i. e. the discriminant of the original form of F when all the variables except x_1, x_2, x_3 vanish.

Writing for shortness $\nu_r = \frac{1}{a_r - \rho}$, we have in this case

$$F_3 = \Sigma \nu_r (x_1 + a_r x_2 + a_r^2 x_3)^2.$$

The discriminant in this form is

$$\Delta_3 = \begin{vmatrix} \Sigma \nu & \Sigma a \nu & \Sigma a^2 \nu \\ \Sigma a \nu & \Sigma a^2 \nu & \Sigma a^3 \nu \\ \Sigma a^2 \nu & \Sigma a^3 \nu & \Sigma a^4 \nu \end{vmatrix},$$

which may be written as the product of the two arrays

$$\left. \begin{matrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ a_1^2 & a_2^2 & \dots & a_n^2 \end{matrix} \right\}, \quad \left. \begin{matrix} \nu_1 & \nu_2 & \dots & \nu_n \\ a_1 \nu_1 & a_2 \nu_2 & \dots & a_n \nu_n \\ a_1^2 \nu_1 & a_2^2 \nu_2 & \dots & a_n^2 \nu_n \end{matrix} \right\};$$

and, consequently,

$$\Delta_3 = \sum \nu_1 \nu_2 \nu_3 \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_1^2 & a_2^2 & a_3^2 \end{vmatrix}^2 = \sum \frac{(a_2 - a_3)^2 (a_3 - a_1)^2 (a_1 - a_2)^2}{(a_1 - \rho)(a_2 - \rho)(a_3 - \rho)}.$$

In an exactly similar manner we find

$$\Delta_j = \sum \frac{\nabla(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_j)}{(a_1 - \rho)(a_2 - \rho) \dots (a_j - \rho)},$$

where the notation $\nabla(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_j)$ is employed to represent the product of the squares of the differences of $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_j$. Hence the quantities $\Delta_1, \Delta_2, \dots, \Delta_j \dots \Delta_n$ are all determined.

Now, multiplying the numerator and denominator of each of the fractions in the series (2) by $f(\rho)$, each value of Δ is rendered integral, and the series becomes

$$\frac{V_1}{V}, \quad \frac{V_2}{V_1}, \quad \frac{V_3}{V_2}, \dots, \frac{V_n}{V_{n-1}}, \quad (3)$$

where

$$V = (\rho - a_1)(\rho - a_2) \dots (\rho - a_n),$$

$$V_1 = \Sigma(\rho - a_2)(\rho - a_3) \dots (\rho - a_n),$$

$$V_2 = \Sigma \nabla(a_1, a_2)(\rho - a_3) \dots (\rho - a_n),$$

$$V_3 = \Sigma \nabla(a_1, a_2, a_3)(\rho - a_4) \dots (\rho - a_n),$$

$$\dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots$$

$$V_n = \nabla(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n).$$

Since negative terms in the series (3) correspond to variations of sign in the series $V, V_1, V_2, V_3, \dots, V_n$, it is proved that the number of variations lost in the series last written, when ρ passes from the value ρ_1 to the value ρ_2 , is exactly equal to the number of real roots of the equation $f(\rho) = 0$ comprised between ρ_1 and ρ_2 .

It will be observed that the functions V, V_1, V_2 , &c., here arrived at have the same property as Sturm's functions; from which in fact they differ by positive multipliers only, as was

observed by Sylvester, who first published these forms in the *Philosophical Magazine*, December, 1839. In order to establish the identity of the two series of functions, we proceed in the first place to prove in the following Article an important theorem connecting the leading coefficients of Sturm's functions and the sums of the powers of the roots of an equation.

204. Theorem.—*The leading coefficients of Sturm's auxiliary functions (i. e. $f'(x)$, and the $n - 1$ remainders) differ by positive factors only from the following series of determinants:—*

$$s_0, \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 \\ s_1 & s_2 \end{vmatrix}, \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & s_2 \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 \\ s_2 & s_3 & s_4 \end{vmatrix}, \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & s_2 & s_3 \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 & s_4 \\ s_2 & s_3 & s_4 & s_5 \\ s_3 & s_4 & s_5 & s_6 \end{vmatrix}, \&c.$$

Using the bracket notation, we may write these determinants in the form $s_0, (s_0 s_2), (s_0 s_2 s_4), \&c.$, the last in the series being $(s_0 s_2 s_4 \dots s_{2n-2})$.

Representing Sturm's remainders by $R_2, R_3, \dots R_j, \dots R_n$, and the successive quotients by $Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, \&c.$, we have (see Art. 96)

$$R_2 = Q_1 f'(x) - f(x),$$

$$R_3 = Q_2 R_2 - f'(x) = (Q_1 Q_2 - 1) f'(x) - Q_2 f(x),$$

$$R_4 = Q_3 R_3 - R_2 = (Q_1 Q_2 Q_3 - Q_1 - Q_3) f'(x) - (Q_2 Q_3 - 1) f(x), \&c.$$

Proceeding in this manner, we observe that any remainder R_j can be expressed in the form

$$R_j = A_j f'(x) - B_j f(x). \quad (1)$$

The degree of R_j is $n - j$; and since $Q_1, Q_2, \&c.$, are all of the first degree in x , it appears that the degrees of A_j and B_j are $j - 1$ and $j - 2$, respectively.

Assuming therefore, for R_j and A_j , the forms

$$R_j \equiv r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \dots + r_{n-j}x^{n-j},$$

$$A_j \equiv \lambda_0 + \lambda_1x + \lambda_2x^2 + \dots + \lambda_{j-1}x^{j-1},$$

and substituting in (1) any root a of the equation $f(x) = 0$, we have

$$\lambda_0 + \lambda_1a + \lambda_2a^2 + \dots + \lambda_{j-1}a^{j-1} = \frac{r_0 + r_1a + r_2a^2 + \dots + r_{n-j}a^{n-j}}{f'(a)}.$$

Multiplying by $a, a^2, \dots, a^{j-2}, a^{j-1}$, in succession; making similar substitutions of the other roots; and adding the equations thus derived, we obtain by aid of the relations of Ex. 4, p. 172, Vol. I., the following system of equations:—

$$\lambda_0s_0 + \lambda_1s_1 + \dots + \lambda_{j-2}s_{j-2} + \lambda_{j-1}s_{j-1} = 0,$$

$$\lambda_0s_1 + \lambda_1s_2 + \dots + \lambda_{j-2}s_{j-1} + \lambda_{j-1}s_j = 0,$$

$$\cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot$$

$$\lambda_0s_{j-2} + \lambda_1s_{j-1} + \dots + \lambda_{j-2}s_{2j-4} + \lambda_{j-1}s_{2j-3} = 0,$$

$$\lambda_0s_{j-1} + \lambda_1s_j + \dots + \lambda_{j-2}s_{2j-3} + \lambda_{j-1}s_{2j-2} = r_{n-j}.$$

From these equations we have, without difficulty,

$$r_{n-j} = \gamma_j \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & \dots & s_{j-1} \\ s_1 & s_2 & \dots & s_j \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ s_{j-1} & s_j & \dots & s_{2j-2} \end{vmatrix}, \quad A_j = \gamma_j \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & \dots & s_{j-2} & s_{j-1} \\ s_1 & s_2 & \dots & s_{j-1} & s_j \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ s_{j-2} & s_{j-1} & \dots & s_{2j-4} & s_{2j-3} \\ 1 & x & \dots & x^{j-2} & x^{j-1} \end{vmatrix},$$

the value of γ_j being so far arbitrary. It appears therefore that the coefficient of the highest power of x in R_j differs by this multiplier only from the determinant $(s_0s_2s_4 \dots s_{2j-2})$. We proceed to show that the sign of γ_j is positive. For this purpose we make use of the following relation connecting the successive values of the functions R and A :—

$$A_{k+1}R_k - R_{k+1}A_k \equiv f(x). \quad (2)$$

To prove this; substituting for $R_{k+1}R_k, R_{k-1}$ their values in terms of A and B in the relation $R_{k+1} = Q_k R_k - R_{k-1}$, we derive

$$A_{k+1} = Q_k A_k - A_{k-1}, \quad B_{k+1} = Q_k B_k - B_{k-1};$$

by aid of which we readily obtain the following relations connecting the successive functions:—

$$A_{k+1}B_k - A_k B_{k+1} = A_k B_{k-1} - A_{k-1} B_k = \dots = A_1 B_0 - A_0 B_1 = -1,$$

$$A_{k+1}R_k - A_k R_{k+1} = A_k R_{k-1} - A_{k-1} R_k = \dots = A_1 R_0 - A_0 R_1 = f(x),$$

in which $R_1 = f'(x)$, $R_0 = f(x)$.

Now, comparing the coefficients of the highest powers of x in (2); observing that x^n occurs only in $A_{k+1}R_k$, and making use of the determinant forms above obtained, we have

$$\gamma_{k+1} (s_0 s_2 s_4 \dots s_{2k-2}) \gamma_k (s_0 s_2 s_4 \dots s_{2k-2}) = 1,$$

or
$$\gamma_k \gamma_{k+1} = (s_0 s_2 s_4 \dots s_{2k-2})^{-2}.$$

Also, calculating the value of R_2 in the ordinary manner, we easily find

$$A_2 = \frac{1}{s_0^2} \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 \\ 1 & x \end{vmatrix};$$

whence it is seen that the value of γ_2 is $\frac{1}{s_0^2}$.

It follows, from the relation just established between any two successive values of γ , that $\gamma_3, \gamma_4, \dots \gamma_j$, &c., are all positive squares, and therefore, finally, that r_{n-j} , the coefficient of the highest power of x in R_j , has the same sign as the determinant $(s_0 s_2 s_4 \dots s_{2j-2})$.

It should be noticed that there is only one way of expressing a function of x , of the degree $n-j$, in the form $Af'(x) - Bf(x)$, where A and B are of the degrees $j-1$ and $j-2$, respectively, and $f(x)$ of the degree n ; for this function being in general of the degree $n+j-2$, in order that it may reduce to the degree $n-j$, the $2j-2$ highest terms must vanish, and this is exactly the number of undetermined quantities in A and B at our

disposal, since it is the ratios only of the coefficients we are concerned with. Sturm's remainders may therefore be obtained in this way with an undetermined multiplier.

The functions R_j , A_j , and B_j are semicovariants of $f(x)$, as may be easily seen by supposing $f(x)$ transformed by the substitution $z = a_0x + a_1$ before these functions are calculated. Their actual expressions in terms of the differences of x and the roots can be readily inferred from the discussion in the following Article.

205. Sylvester's Forms of Sturm's Functions.—We make use of the notation employed in the preceding Article, and propose to show that the Sturmiian remainder R_j differs only by the positive factor γ_j from the function V_j . We have

$$R_j \equiv A_j f'(x) - B_j f(x), \quad (1)$$

where

$$R_j = r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \dots + r_{n-j}x^{n-j},$$

$$A_j = \lambda_0 + \lambda_1x + \lambda_2x^2 + \dots + \lambda_{j-1}x^{j-1},$$

$$B_j = \mu_0 + \mu_1x + \mu_2x^2 + \dots + \mu_{j-2}x^{j-2};$$

also from the value of r_{n-j} above given we have immediately

$$r_{n-j} = \gamma_j \Sigma \nabla (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots a_j),$$

showing that the leading coefficients in R_j and V_j differ only by the factor γ_j . We now proceed to prove that the last coefficients in these functions differ only by the same factor. For this purpose, dividing the identity (1) by $f(x)$, substituting in it from the equation

$$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{s_0}{x} + \frac{s_1}{x^2} + \frac{s_2}{x^3} + \dots,$$

and comparing coefficients, we find

$$\mu_0 = \lambda_1 s_0 + \lambda_2 s_1 + \lambda_3 s_2 + \dots + \lambda_{j-1} s_{j-2},$$

$$\mu_1 = \lambda_2 s_0 + \lambda_3 s_1 + \dots + \lambda_{j-1} s_{j-3},$$

$$\cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot$$

$$\mu_{j-2} = \lambda_{j-1} s_0.$$

Also, putting $x = 0$ in (1), we have

$$r_0 = \lambda_0 p_{n-1} - \mu_0 p_n,$$

and substituting for μ_0 in terms of $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \&c.$,

$$-\frac{r_0}{p_n} = \lambda_0 s_{-1} + \lambda_1 s_0 + \lambda_2 s_1 + \dots + \lambda_{j-1} s_{j-2};$$

whence, giving to $\lambda_0, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{j-1}$ the same values as in the calculation of r_{n-j} , we find

$$r_0 = (-1)^j p_n \gamma_j \begin{vmatrix} s_{-1} & s_0 & s_1 & \dots & s_{j-2} \\ s_0 & s_1 & s_2 & \dots & s_{j-1} \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ s_{j-2} & s_{j-1} & s_j & \dots & s_{2j-3} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Now, referring to the calculation of Δ_j in Art. 203, and putting $\rho = 0$, or $\nu_r = \frac{1}{a_r}$, in the value of Δ_j there found, we find for the determinant just written the value

$$\sum \frac{\nabla(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_j)}{a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_j};$$

hence, giving p_n its value in terms of the roots, we have

$$r_0 = (-1)^{n-j} \gamma_j \Sigma \nabla(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_j) a_{j+1} a_{j+2} \dots a_n,$$

which was required to be proved.

The first and last coefficients of R_j , when divided by γ_j , having been thus shown to be the same as in the form V_j , it follows that all the intermediate terms must be similarly related; for, in the first place, R_j is a function of the differences of the quantities $x, a_1, a_2 \dots a_n$, as may be seen by transforming $f(x)$ before calculating R_j by the substitution $z = a_0 x + a_1$, as in Ex. 3, Art. 99. When this transformation is completed, every coefficient in R_j , as well as z , is a function

of the differences; consequently R_j is a semicovariant, and satisfies the differential equation

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx} + \frac{d}{da_1} + \frac{d}{da_2} + \dots + \frac{d}{da_n} \right) R_j = 0, \text{ or } \frac{dR_j}{dx} - DR_j = 0,$$

and therefore, as is proved in Article 164, all the coefficients may be obtained from the last by a definite law. The same conclusions plainly holding also for the function V_j , it is therefore proved, finally, that

$$R_j = \gamma_j V_j.$$

EXAMPLES.

1. Using the notation of Arts. 204, 205, prove that the quotient of A_j by γ_j can be written as a symmetric function involving x and the roots; e. g.,

$$\frac{A_4}{\gamma_4} = \Sigma (\beta - \gamma)^2 (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\alpha - \beta)^2 (x - \alpha) (x - \beta) (x - \gamma).$$

2. With the same notation prove that

$$B_j = \gamma_j \begin{vmatrix} s_0 & s_1 & s_2 & \dots & s_{j-1} \\ s_1 & s_2 & s_3 & \dots & s_j \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ s_{j-2} & s_{j-1} & s_j & \dots & s_{2j-3} \\ 0 & T_1 & T_2 & \dots & T_{j-1} \end{vmatrix},$$

where

$$T_j = s_0 x^{j-1} + s_1 x^{j-2} + s_2 x^{j-3} + \dots + s_{j-1}.$$

3. With the same notation, and denoting by U_n

$$\sum_{r=1}^{r=n} (x - \alpha_r) (x_1 + \alpha x_2 + \alpha^2 x_3 + \dots + \alpha^{n-1} x_n)^2,$$

prove that the discriminant of U_j may be determined by the equation $\gamma_j \Delta_j = A_j$, and show directly that if $A_j = 0$ for a certain value of x , A_{j-1} and A_{j+1} have opposite signs for the same value of x .

NOTE.—Hermite's theorem holds when $\alpha_r - \rho$ is changed into $(\alpha_r - \rho)^m$ in the enunciation on p. 182, m being any odd integer, positive or negative.

SECTION III.—MISCELLANEOUS THEOREMS.

206. **Reduction of the Quintic to the Sum of Three Fifth Powers.**—This reduction can be effected by the solution of an equation of the third degree, as we proceed to show. Let

$(a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5)(x, y)^5 = b_1(x + \beta_1 y)^5 + b_2(x + \beta_2 y)^5 + b_3(x + \beta_3 y)^5$,
where $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ are the roots of the equation

$$p_3 z^3 + p_2 z^2 + p_1 z + p_0 = 0.$$

Now, comparing coefficients in the two forms of the quintic,

$$a_0 = b_1 + b_2 + b_3, \quad a_1 = b_1 \beta_1 + b_2 \beta_2 + b_3 \beta_3,$$

$$a_2 = b_1 \beta_1^2 + b_2 \beta_2^2 + b_3 \beta_3^2, \quad a_3 = b_1 \beta_1^3 + b_2 \beta_2^3 + b_3 \beta_3^3,$$

$$a_4 = b_1 \beta_1^4 + b_2 \beta_2^4 + b_3 \beta_3^4, \quad a_5 = b_1 \beta_1^5 + b_2 \beta_2^5 + b_3 \beta_3^5;$$

whence

$$p_0 a_0 + p_1 a_1 + p_2 a_2 + p_3 a_3 = 0,$$

$$p_0 a_1 + p_1 a_2 + p_2 a_3 + p_3 a_4 = 0,$$

$$p_0 a_2 + p_1 a_3 + p_2 a_4 + p_3 a_5 = 0.$$

When these equations are taken in conjunction with the equation

$$p_0 + p_1 z + p_2 z^2 + p_3 z^3 = 0,$$

we have the following equation to determine $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$:—

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & z & z^2 & z^3 \\ a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 \\ a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

Also b_1, b_2, b_3 are determined by the equations

$$b_1 + b_2 + b_3 = a_0,$$

$$b_1 \beta_1 + b_2 \beta_2 + b_3 \beta_3 = a_1,$$

$$b_1 \beta_1^2 + b_2 \beta_2^2 + b_3 \beta_3^2 = a_2,$$

and the solution thereby completed.

This important transformation of the quintic is a particular case of the following general theorem (proved in an exactly similar manner) due to Sylvester:—

Any homogeneous function of x, y , of the degree $2n - 1$, can be reduced to the form

$$b_1(x + \beta_1 y)^{2n-1} + b_2(x + \beta_2 y)^{2n-1} + \dots + b_n(x + \beta_n y)^{2n-1}$$

by the solution of an equation of the n^{th} degree.

It is proper to observe that when the cubic equation in z (called the canonizant) has equal roots, the foregoing reduction of the quintic to the trinomial form fails; but it is not difficult to show, by examining the limiting value of the ratio of $(x + \beta_2 y)^5 - (x + \beta_3 y)^5$ to $\beta_2 - \beta_3$, when $\beta_2 = \beta_3$, that the quintic admits in that case of reduction to the trinomial form

$$AX^5 + BXY^4 - BY^5.$$

(Clebsch's *Theorie der Binären Algebraischen Formen*, p. 385.)

207. Quartics Transformable into each other.—We proceed to determine under what conditions two quartics can be transformed, the one into the other, by linear transformation.

Let the quartics be

$$U = (a, b, c, d, e)(x, y)^4 = a(x - \alpha y)(x - \beta y)(x - \gamma y)(x - \delta y),$$

$$V = (a', b', c', d', e')(x', y')^4 = a'(x' - \alpha' y')(x' - \beta' y')(x' - \gamma' y')(x' - \delta' y');$$

and if they become identical by the transformation

$$x' = \lambda x + \mu y, \quad y' = \lambda' x + \mu' y,$$

we have, by Art. 38,

$$\frac{(\beta' - \gamma')(\alpha' - \delta')}{(\beta - \gamma)(\alpha - \delta)} = \frac{(\gamma' - \alpha')(\beta' - \delta')}{(\gamma - \alpha)(\beta - \delta)} = \frac{(\alpha' - \beta')(\gamma' - \delta')}{(\alpha - \beta)(\gamma - \delta)},$$

showing that the six anharmonic ratios determined by the roots must be the same for both equations.

From these equations we have also the following relations between the invariants of the two forms:—

$$I' = M^4 I, \quad J' = M^6 J; \tag{1}$$

whence

$$\frac{I'^3}{J'^2} = \frac{I^3}{J^2}. \tag{2}$$

The quantity $\frac{I^3}{J^2}$ being absolutely unaltered by transformation when the quartic is linearly transformed is called the *absolute invariant* of the quartic. The condition expressed by equation (2) is, therefore, that the absolute invariant should be the same for both quartics. The condition here arrived at agrees with the result of Ex. 16, p. 148, Vol. I., where it is proved that the sextic which determines the anharmonic ratios of the roots involves the absolute invariant, and no other function of the coefficients of the quartic. We may refer to Art. 198 for an illustration of what is here proved, the quartic as there transformed having the same invariants and consequently the same absolute invariant as a quartic of the form $lU + mH_x$.

The conditions expressed by the equations (1), (2) are always *necessary*; but not always *sufficient*, as we proceed to illustrate by an exceptional case. Let $U = u^2vw$, $V = u'^2v'^2$, where u, v, w, u', v' , are of the linear form $lx + my$.

Although the condition $\frac{I^3}{J^2} = \frac{I'^3}{J'^2}$ is satisfied in this case, the common value of these fractions being 27, it is impossible to transform U into V , since it is impossible to make vw a perfect square by linear transformation. In such a case it would be impossible to identify the six anharmonic ratios depending on the roots of the quartics. In general, it may be stated that the conditions necessary and sufficient that two forms can be linearly transformed, the one into the other, are—

1°. That the same covariants and invariants should vanish identically for both forms;

2°. That the absolute invariants should be equal.

Forms of the same degree, therefore, can be classified according to the vanishing of their covariants and invariants, on the same principle as curves according to their singularities (see Gram, *Mathematische Annalen*, Vol. VII., p. 239).

208. Number of Absolute Invariants of any Quantic.—We proceed now to examine how the number of absolute invariants of any binary quantic is connected with the number of ordinary invariants, and how far a limit can be determined to either of these numbers. Transforming the quantic

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, y)^n$$

by the substitution

$$x = \lambda X + \mu Y, \quad y = \lambda' X + \mu' Y;$$

if the new form be

$$(A_0, A_1, A_2 \dots A_n)(X, Y)^n,$$

we have by the comparison of coefficients $n + 1$ equations expressing $A_0, A_1, \dots A_n$ as follows:—

$$A_0 = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(\lambda, \lambda')^n, \dots A_j = \frac{\Gamma_{(j)}}{\Gamma_{(n)}} \Delta^{n-j} A_n, \dots, \\ A_n = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(\mu, \mu')^n,$$

where $\Delta = \lambda \frac{d}{d\mu} + \lambda' \frac{d}{d\mu'}, \quad \Gamma_{(j)} = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots j, \quad \Gamma_{(0)} = 1.$

Now, eliminating $\lambda, \mu, \lambda', \mu'$, we obtain, among the new and old coefficients, $n - 3$ independent relations, which number is therefore a superior limit to the number of absolute invariants. But if $(\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)$ be admitted when $\lambda, \mu, \lambda', \mu'$ are excluded by elimination, we must add the equation $\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu = M$ to the $n + 1$ equations given above; and when the elimination is now completed, we have $n - 2$ independent relations. We will assume, as suggested by our previous investigations, that these relations can be reduced to the form

$$\phi_r(A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots A_n) = M^i \phi_r(a_0, a_1, a_2 \dots a_n); \quad (\text{Art. 171})$$

and we have therefore $n - 2$ independent ordinary invariants $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots \phi_{n-2}$. Eliminating M we obtain, as above stated, $n - 3$ relations connecting the two sets of coefficients, and this, therefore, is the number of independent absolute invariants. It is not true, in general, that every invariant can be expressed as a *rational* function of the invariants $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots \phi_{n-2}$; and consequently, we have not obtained a superior limit to the number of ordinary invariants by this investigation (see Note E).

209. **Number of Seminvariants of a Quantic.**—Every seminvariant can be expressed rationally in terms of a_0 and $n - 1$ functions of the coefficients which are either invariants or seminvariants. For, removing the second term from the equation

$$U_n = (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n)(x, 1)^n = 0,$$

the new coefficients are easily obtained by substituting for h its value $-\frac{a_1}{a_0}$ (Art. 35). As these coefficients, when divided by a_0 , are symmetric functions of the differences of the roots, they must be invariants or seminvariants when multiplied by a power of a_0 ; also every other symmetric function of the differences of the roots must be a rational function of the same quantities, but not necessarily *integral* when multiplied by a_0^r ; consequently we have not obtained a superior limit to the number of independent seminvariants (or, which is the same thing, covariants) by this investigation. It has been proved, however, by Gordan that the number of seminvariants of any quantic is finite.

As an illustration of the preceding, we give the values of A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5, A_6 in a reduced form—

$$a_0 A_2 = H, \quad a_0^2 A_3 = G, \quad a_0^3 A_4 = a_0^2 I - 3H^2, \quad (\text{Art. 37})$$

$$a_0^4 A_5 = a_0^2 F - 2GH,$$

$$a_0^5 A_6 = 45H^3 - 15a_0^2 HI + 10G^2 + a_0^4 I_2,$$

where $F = a_0^2 a_5 - 5a_0 a_1 a_4 + 2a_0 a_2 a_3 - 6a_1 a_2^2 + 8a_1^2 a_3,$

$$I_2 = a_0 a_6 - 6a_1 a_5 + 15a_2 a_4 - 10a_3^2,$$

F being a seminvariant, and I_2 an invariant of the sextic U_6 . (Exs. 4, 6, p. 103). We have, therefore, proved that every seminvariant of the sextic can be expressed in the form

$$a_0^{-r} \Psi(a_0, F, G, H, I, I_2),$$

where Ψ is a rational and integral function; and, consequently,

order, we obtain the term $a_8a_6a_5a_2a_1$, of order 5 and weight 22. It is clear that two terms thus derived from one another have always equal weights, since the total number of points counted in both cases is the same. We see therefore that to any term of order 8 and weight 22 derived from the coefficients of a quintic corresponds a term of order 5 and weight 22 similarly derived from the coefficients of an octavic; this relation is reciprocal, so that for each term of either function there exists a corresponding term of the other, and if one list of terms be complete, the derived list must also be complete. In applying this transformation it must be observed that if the term to be transformed does not contain the coefficient with highest suffix of the corresponding quantic, the order of the derived term will be deficient, and the factor a_0 with proper index must be supplied, this of course not affecting the weight. Since therefore the two corresponding expressions thus derivable from one another contain the same number of terms, we may represent this result by the notation

$$N(\varpi, \kappa, n) = N(n, \kappa, \varpi).$$

The same is true for similar functions whose weight is one less in each case. We have therefore

$$N(\varpi, \kappa, n) - N(\varpi, \kappa - 1, n) = N(n, \kappa, \varpi) - N(n, \kappa - 1, \varpi),$$

from which, by Cayley's theorem (p. 104), it follows that the number of seminvariants of order ϖ and weight κ which can be made up out of $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n$ is equal to the number of order n and weight κ which can be made up out of $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_\varpi$.

Hermite's theorem as to covariants follows immediately, since the corresponding seminvariants can be taken as leading coefficients of covariants; and, moreover, since $n\varpi - 2\kappa = \varpi n - 2\kappa$, the degrees of two corresponding covariants are equal. As a particular case, also, we see that to an invariant of one quantic corresponds an invariant of the other.

EXAMPLES.

1. Show that the terms written with literal coefficients which occur in the resultant of a cubic, by the transformation above described, supply the literal terms of the cubic invariant of the quartic.

2. From the seminvariant of a quintic in Ex. 4, p. 103, derive the literal terms of the corresponding seminvariant of a cubic; and show that to the quintic covariant of the former corresponds the product of H_x and G_x of the cubic.

3. Show that quantics of the degree $2m$ alone have invariants of the second order in the coefficients.

For the only invariants of a quadratic are of the type Δ^m , whose order in the coefficients is $2m$, Δ being the discriminant.

211. Reciprocal and Orthogonal Linear Transformation—Contravariants.—When the coordinates of a point are transformed by a linear transformation, the tangential coordinates of a line and the operating symbols $\frac{d}{dx}$, $\frac{d}{dy}$, $\frac{d}{dz}$ are both transformed by the same new linear transformation, which is said to be reciprocal to the first.

Let the linear transformation be

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x &= a_1X + b_1Y + c_1Z, \\ y &= a_2X + b_2Y + c_2Z, \\ z &= a_3X + b_3Y + c_3Z \end{aligned} \right\}; \quad (1)$$

whence any line $\lambda x + \mu y + \nu z$ becomes, by transformation, $LX + MY + NZ$, where

$$\left. \begin{aligned} L &= a_1\lambda + a_2\mu + a_3\nu, \\ M &= b_1\lambda + b_2\mu + b_3\nu, \\ N &= c_1\lambda + c_2\mu + c_3\nu \end{aligned} \right\}; \quad (2)$$

also
$$\frac{d}{dX} = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{dx}{dX} + \frac{d}{dy} \frac{dy}{dX} + \frac{d}{dz} \frac{dz}{dX},$$

or, substituting for $\frac{dx}{dX}$, $\frac{dy}{dX}$, $\frac{dz}{dX}$ their values,

$$\frac{d}{dX} = a_1 \frac{d}{dx} + a_2 \frac{d}{dy} + a_3 \frac{d}{dz}.$$

and similarly

$$\frac{d}{dY} = b_1 \frac{d}{dx} + b_2 \frac{d}{dy} + b_3 \frac{d}{dz}, \quad \frac{d}{dZ} = c_1 \frac{d}{dx} + c_2 \frac{d}{dy} + c_3 \frac{d}{dz};$$

whence L, M, N and the symbols $\frac{d}{dX}, \frac{d}{dY}, \frac{d}{dZ}$ follow the same laws of transformation, and consequently λ, μ, ν and $\frac{d}{dx}, \frac{d}{dy}, \frac{d}{dz}$ also; in fact, from equations (2) this transformation is

$$\Delta\lambda = A_1L + B_1M + C_1N,$$

$$\Delta\mu = A_2L + B_2M + C_2N,$$

$$\Delta\nu = A_3L + B_3M + C_3N,$$

where $\Delta = (a_1b_2c_3), \quad A_1 = \frac{d\Delta}{da_1}, \quad B_1 = \frac{d\Delta}{db_1}, \quad \&c. \&c.$

This linear transformation is said to be reciprocal to the transformation (1) whose modulus is Δ , its coefficients being

$$\frac{1}{\Delta} \frac{d\Delta}{da_1}, \quad \frac{1}{\Delta} \frac{d\Delta}{db_1}, \quad \frac{1}{\Delta} \frac{d\Delta}{dc_1}, \quad \&c.$$

The variables x, y, z , and $\frac{d}{dx}, \frac{d}{dy}, \frac{d}{dz}$ are said to be *conjugate* to each other, for a linear transformation of x, y, z leads to a linear transformation of the symbols $\frac{d}{dx}, \frac{d}{dy}, \frac{d}{dz}$, which, although not the same, is connected with the first in the manner already explained.

We next define "orthogonal" transformation. If, in the equations (1) above written, we have among the coefficients the relations

$$a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 = 1, \quad b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2 = 1, \quad c_1^2 + c_2^2 + c_3^2 = 1,$$

$$a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3 = 0, \quad a_1c_1 + a_2c_2 + a_3c_3 = 0, \quad b_1c_1 + b_2c_2 + b_3c_3 = 0,$$

the transformation is said to be *orthogonal*. These conditions are fulfilled, for example, by the direction-cosines which enter into the relations between the coordinates of a point referred to

two different sets of rectangular axes in solid geometry. In such a transformation it is clear that we have the relation

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2,$$

and that the new variables are expressed as follows in terms of the old :—

$$X = a_1x + a_2y + a_3z, \quad Y = b_1x + b_2y + b_3z, \quad Z = c_1x + c_2y + c_3z.$$

Also, if the modulus of transformation written as a determinant be squared, each of the elements contained in the principal diagonal is equal to unity, and all the other elements vanish.

These results can be readily extended to any number n of variables, in which case there will be $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$ relations among the coefficients of transformation.

It is easily seen that, in the case of an orthogonal transformation, $\frac{d}{dx}, \frac{d}{dy}, \frac{d}{dz}$ are cogredient with x, y, z .

We conclude with a definition of “contravariants,” confining our attention, for simplicity, to the case of three variables. When a quantic in x, y, z is transformed, any function involving the coefficients of the original quantic, together with other variables which are transformed by the reciprocal substitution above explained, is said to be a *contravariant* if it differs only by a power of the modulus of transformation from the corresponding function of the transformed coefficients and variables. The condition, for example, that a line $\lambda x + \mu y + \nu z$ should touch a conic given by an equation in trilinear coordinates is a contravariant. The theory of contravariants can be included under that of invariants by considering the combined system composed of the given quantic and $\lambda x + \mu y + \nu z$.

It may be observed that in the case of binary quantics contravariants and covariants are not essentially distinct (see Salmon's *Higher Algebra*, Art. 140).

MISCELLANEOUS EXAMPLES.

1. Every quantic of an odd degree has a quadratic covariant of the second order in the coefficients.

For every quantic of an even degree has an invariant of the second order in the coefficients (Art. 177), which may be written in the form $U_D(U)$ or $(1, 2)^n U_1 U_2$; and this invariant of the quantic whose degree is $2m$ will be a seminvariant of one whose degree is $2m + 1 \equiv n$. The covariant therefore which has this seminvariant as leader will be a quadratic, since $n\varpi - 2\kappa = 2$, κ being $n - 1$ and $\varpi = 2$.

2. Every quantic of an odd degree $2m + 1 \equiv n$ has a linear covariant of the degree n in the coefficients when n is greater than 3.

For, if $I(x, y)^2$ be the quadratic covariant of the preceding example, we have

$$I_D^m(U) = L_0 x + L_1 y,$$

a linear covariant, the order of L_0 and L_1 being n . It is here assumed that L_0 and L_1 are not identically zero, as they are for the cubic.

3. Every quantic of an odd degree has an invariant of the fourth order in the coefficients of the form $A_0 a_n^2 + 2A_1 a_n + A_2$.

The discriminant of $I(x, y)^2$ is the required invariant.

4. Every quantic of odd degree n has a seminvariant of the third order in the coefficients which is the leader of a covariant of the n^{th} degree.

For, differentiating with regard to a_n the discriminant obtained in the preceding example, we have, for the resulting seminvariant, $\varpi = 3$, $\kappa = n$, and consequently $\rho = n\varpi - 2\kappa = n$, which is therefore the degree of the covariant of which $\frac{d\Delta}{da_n}$ is the leader.

The series of seminvariants obtained in this way for the odd quantics is important, the order in the coefficients being low.

5. Quantics of the degree $4m$ have invariants of the third order in the coefficients.

For cubics have invariants of the type Δ^m , of the order $4m$ in the coefficients, Δ being the discriminant. This and the next four examples are immediate deductions from Hermite's Law of Reciprocity (Art. 210).

6. Quantics of the degree m have as many invariants of the fourth order as there are solutions in positive integers of the equation $2p + 3q = m$. A quintic, for example, has one, a sextic two, a septic one, an octavic two; and so on.

For quartics have invariants of the type $I^p J^q$, which is of the order $2p + 3q = m$ in the coefficients.

7. Every quantic of the degree $2p + q$ has a covariant of the second order in the coefficients. In particular, when $q = 1$, every quantic of odd degree has a quadratic covariant of the second order in the coefficients (cf. Ex. 1).

For quadratics have covariants of the type $\Delta^p U_2^q$, which is of the order $2p + q$ in the coefficients.

8. Every binary quantic of an odd degree greater than 3 has a linear covariant of the fifth order in the coefficients.

For a quintic has an invariant I_4 of the fourth order, the discriminant of I_x , also covariants of the fifth and seventh orders, viz. L_x (Ex. 2) and $M_x \equiv L_D I_x$; from these we form the covariants $I_4^{p-1} L_x$, of order $4p + 1$, and $I_4^{p-2} M_x$, of order $4p - 1$; but every odd number is of the form $4p \pm 1$.—HERMITE.

9. Every quantic of the degree $4p + 2$ has a quadratic covariant of the third order in the coefficients.

For a cubic has a quadratic covariant of the type $\Delta^p H_x$, of the order $4p + 2$ in the coefficients.

10. When the quintic $(a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5)(x, y)^5$ has a triple factor, prove that the covariant I_x is a perfect square, and the covariant J_x a perfect cube, the linear factor being the triple factor of the quintic in both cases.

11. When the quintic has two double factors, the remaining factor is a single factor of J_x .

12. If $U_x \equiv (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)(x, y)^n$, prove that the resultant of U_x and the covariant G_x is the discriminant of U cubed; that is, $R(U_x, G_x) = \Delta^3(U_x)$; and prove also $R(U_x, H_x) = \Delta^2(U_x)$.

Express H_x and G_x in terms of the semicovariants $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_0, U$.

13. Express the combinant P^2 of two cubics in terms of the other invariants.

$$Ans. P^2 = 16I_{13} - 4I_{22} = \Phi + 24I_{13},$$

where $I_{11}, I_{12} \dots$ &c. are the invariants of the three Hessians of Art. 192.

14. When the quintic has a triple root, the following symmetric functions of the roots vanish:—

$$\Sigma (a_1 - a_2)^2 \nabla (a_3, a_4, a_5), \quad \Sigma (a_1 - a_2)^4 \nabla (a_3, a_4, a_5).$$

15. Transform two given quadratics in x, y to the forms

$$au^2 + bv^2, \quad a'u^2 + b'v^2,$$

where u and v are linear functions of x and y .

16. If the coefficients of three quadratics

$$a_1x^2 + 2b_1xy + c_1y^2, \quad a_2x^2 + 2b_2xy + c_2y^2, \quad a_3x^2 + 2b_3xy + c_3y^2$$

be connected by the relation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1 & b_1 & c_1 \\ a_2 & b_2 & c_2 \\ a_3 & b_3 & c_3 \end{vmatrix} = 0,$$

prove that they may be reduced by linear transformation to the forms

$$A_1X^2 + C_1Y^2, \quad A_2X^2 + C_2Y^2, \quad A_3X^2 + C_3Y^2.$$

The determinant here written is the condition that the three quadratics should determine a system of points or lines in involution.

17. To reduce two quadrics in three variables to the sums of the same three squares with proper coefficients.

$$\text{Let } U = ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 + 2fyz + 2gzx + 2hxy,$$

$$V = a_1x^2 + b_1y^2 + c_1z^2 + 2f_1yz + 2g_1zx + 2h_1xy,$$

$$F(x, y, z) = \lambda U + V, \quad X = \frac{1}{2} \frac{dF}{dx}, \quad Y = \frac{1}{2} \frac{dF}{dy}, \quad Z = \frac{1}{2} \frac{dF}{dz}.$$

We have then identically

$$F = -\frac{1}{\Delta(\lambda)} \begin{vmatrix} \lambda a + a_1 & \lambda h + h_1 & \lambda g + g_1 & X \\ \lambda h + h_1 & \lambda b + b_1 & \lambda f + f_1 & Y \\ \lambda g + g_1 & \lambda f + f_1 & \lambda c + c_1 & Z \\ X & Y & Z & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{\Phi(\lambda)}{\Delta(\lambda)},$$

where $\Delta(\lambda)$ is the discriminant of $\lambda U + V$; and $\Phi(\lambda)$ is a function of the second degree in λ , the symbols X, Y, Z being retained in it for the present, and not replaced by the values involving λ .

Resolving into partial fractions, we have

$$F = \frac{\Phi(\lambda_1)}{\Delta'(\lambda_1)} \frac{1}{\lambda - \lambda_1} + \frac{\Phi(\lambda_2)}{\Delta'(\lambda_2)} \frac{1}{\lambda - \lambda_2} + \frac{\Phi(\lambda_3)}{\Delta'(\lambda_3)} \frac{1}{\lambda - \lambda_3}, \quad (1)$$

in which $\Phi(\lambda_1), \Phi(\lambda_2), \Phi(\lambda_3)$ are all perfect squares, since they are obtained by bordering the vanishing determinants $\Delta(\lambda_1), \Delta(\lambda_2), \Delta(\lambda_3)$. (Art. 149.)

Now, replacing X, Y, Z by their values, $\lambda U_1 + V_1$, &c., $\Phi(\lambda_j)$ is easily reducible to the form

$$-(\lambda - \lambda_j)^2 \begin{vmatrix} \lambda_j a + a_1 & \lambda_j h + h_1 & \lambda_j g + g_1 & U_1 \\ \lambda_j h + h_1 & \lambda_j b + b_1 & \lambda_j f + f_1 & U_2 \\ \lambda_j g + g_1 & \lambda_j f + f_1 & \lambda_j c + c_1 & U_3 \\ U_1 & U_2 & U_3 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \equiv (\lambda - \lambda_j)^2 u_j^2,$$

where $j = 1, 2$, or 3 , and u_j is independent of λ .

Substituting these values in (1), we find

$$\lambda U + V \equiv (\lambda - \lambda_1) \frac{u_1^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_1)} + (\lambda - \lambda_2) \frac{u_2^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_2)} + (\lambda - \lambda_3) \frac{u_3^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_3)}.$$

Equating the coefficients of λ , we have

$$U \equiv \frac{u_1^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_1)} + \frac{u_2^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_2)} + \frac{u_3^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_3)},$$

$$-V \equiv \lambda_1 \frac{u_1^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_1)} + \lambda_2 \frac{u_2^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_2)} + \lambda_3 \frac{u_3^2}{\Delta'(\lambda_3)},$$

which was required to be done.

It is to be observed that this problem has only one solution. The mode of reduction here given is due to Darboux, and is plainly applicable whatever be the number of variables.

18. Prove that two cubics can, in general, be transformed one into the other by linear transformation.

19. Express three cubics, U , V , W , by means of three cubes.

Assuming

$$\lambda U + \mu V + \nu W \equiv (x - \rho y)^3, \quad (1)$$

and comparing coefficients, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda a_1 + \mu a_2 + \nu a_3 &= 1, \\ \lambda b_1 + \mu b_2 + \nu b_3 &= -\rho, \\ \lambda c_1 + \mu c_2 + \nu c_3 &= \rho^2, \\ \lambda d_1 + \mu d_2 + \nu d_3 &= -\rho^3. \end{aligned}$$

These equations, by eliminating λ , μ , ν , give three values of ρ , and corresponding values of λ , μ , ν : in this way we obtain three equations of the form (1) to determine U , V , W in terms of

$$(x - \rho_1 y)^3, \quad (x - \rho_2 y)^3, \quad (x - \rho_3 y)^3.$$

It is easy to see, that ρ is given by the equation

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_1\rho + b_1 & a_2\rho + b_2 & a_3\rho + b_3 \\ b_1\rho + c_1 & b_2\rho + c_2 & b_3\rho + c_3 \\ c_1\rho + d_1 & c_2\rho + d_2 & c_3\rho + d_3 \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

A similar method may be applied to express n quantics of the n^{th} order in terms of n n^{th} powers.

20. Prove that the three roots of a cubic may be expressed as

$$x_1, \quad \theta(x_1), \quad \theta^2(x_1),$$

where

$$\theta(x) = \frac{lx + m}{l'x + m'}, \quad \text{and} \quad \theta^3(x) = x.$$

From Art. 60, putting $\epsilon \sqrt{-\frac{\Delta}{3}} = K$, where $\epsilon = 1$ or -1 , we derive

$$\left. \begin{aligned} K(\beta - \gamma) &= H\beta\gamma + H_1(\beta + \gamma) + H_2, \\ K(\gamma - \alpha) &= H\gamma\alpha + H_1(\gamma + \alpha) + H_2, \\ K(\alpha - \beta) &= H\alpha\beta + H_1(\alpha + \beta) + H_2. \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (1)$$

These homographic relations between the roots may be written in the form

$$\beta = \theta(\gamma), \quad \gamma = \theta(\alpha), \quad \alpha = \theta(\beta);$$

where the numerator and denominator in θ are supposed to be divided by $2K$; and this being done it will be found that l , m , l' , m' are connected by the relations $lm' - l'm = 1 = l + m'$, and the roots α , γ , β may be represented as α , $\theta(\alpha)$, $\theta^2(\alpha)$;

$\theta^3(\alpha)$ being equal to α . It is important to observe that the equations (1) are consistent, the sum of the expressions on the right-hand side being zero; that is to say, K must have the same sign in all three, any other combination of signs being inadmissible.

This example is a particular case of a general theorem of Abel's, viz.—If the m roots of an equation of the m^{th} degree are $\alpha, \theta(\alpha), \theta^2(\alpha), \dots, \theta^{m-1}(\alpha)$, where $\theta(x)$ is a rational function such that when the operation θ is repeated m times $\theta^m(x) = x$, then the solution requires only the determination of a primitive root of $x^m - 1 = 0$ and the extraction of the m^{th} root of a known quantity (see Note G.).

21. Given a binary cubic U and its Hessian H_x , the cubic being satisfied by the ratios $x : y$ and $x' : y'$; prove that

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{-\Delta}} \frac{x' \frac{dH_x}{dx} + y' \frac{dH_x}{dy}}{xy' - x'y}$$

is an absolute constant, Δ being the discriminant of U .

This expression is absolutely unchanged by linear transformation, since

$$H_{x, y} = M^2 H_{x', y'}, \quad \Delta' = M^6 \Delta,$$

and

$$\begin{vmatrix} X & Y \\ X' & Y' \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{M} \begin{vmatrix} x & y \\ x' & y' \end{vmatrix}, \quad X' \frac{d}{dX} + Y' \frac{d}{dY} = x' \frac{d}{dx} + y' \frac{d}{dy}.$$

Reducing U to the sum of two cubes by a linear transformation whose modulus = 1, the constant may be easily shown to be $\frac{1}{\sqrt{-3}}$. This is another form of the homographic relation of Art. 60.

22. Prove that a rational homographic relation in terms of the coefficients connects any two rational functions of the same root of a cubic equation; but that the relation is not rational when the roots are different.

23. Transform the quartic

$$(a, b, c, d, e)(x, 1)^4$$

into one whose invariant I shall vanish.

$$\text{Assuming} \quad y = x^2 + 2\eta x + \zeta,$$

and making the invariant I of the transformed equation vanish, we have

$$\Sigma (\rho_2 - \rho_3)^2 (\phi - \rho_1)^2 = 0, \quad (1)$$

where ϕ is a known quadratic function of η , not involving ζ .

Expanding (1), we have

$$I\phi^2 - 3J\phi + \frac{I^2}{12} = 0,$$

which determines ϕ , and consequently η , by means of a quadratic equation; and ζ may have any value.

By a similar transformation J can be made to vanish.

24. Prove that the most general rational transformation of a quartic $f(x)$ may be reduced to the transformation

$$y = \frac{P}{p-x} + \frac{Q}{q-x}.$$

When $P = Rf(p)f'(q)$, and $Q = -Rf(q)f'(p)$, show that the second term of the transformed quartic is absent.

25. Prove that the transformation

$$y = \frac{ax^2 + 2\beta x + \gamma}{\alpha_1 x^2 + 2\beta_1 x + \gamma_1}$$

may be accomplished by the three successive transformations—(1) a homographic transformation; (2) a transformation of the roots into their squares; (3) a homographic transformation.

26. If p be any integer, prove that

$$\frac{(x_1^p - x_2^p)(x_3^p - x_4^p)}{(x_1 - x_2)(x_3 - x_4)} = \Sigma_0 + (x_1 x_2 + x_3 x_4) \Sigma_1,$$

where Σ_0 and Σ_1 are symmetric functions of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 ; prove also that

$$\frac{(\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_2))(\phi(x_3) - \phi(x_4))}{(\psi(x_1) - \psi(x_2))(\psi(x_3) - \psi(x_4))} = \frac{\Sigma_0 + \Sigma_1(x_1 x_2 + x_3 x_4)}{\Sigma'_0 + \Sigma'_1(x_1 x_2 + x_3 x_4)},$$

where $\Sigma_0, \Sigma_1, \Sigma'_0, \Sigma'_1$ are symmetric functions of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 .

27. If $\phi(x, y)$ and $\psi(x, y)$ be two covariants of the binary form

$$U \equiv (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)(x, y)^n$$

of the degrees p and q , respectively; and if

$$\phi \left(xX - \frac{1}{q} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} Y, \quad yX + \frac{1}{q} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} Y \right)$$

be expanded in the form

$$(V_0, V_1, V_2, \dots, V_p)(X, Y)^p;$$

prove that $V_0, V_1, V_2, \dots, V_p$ are covariants of U . (HERMITE.)

Expanding, the coefficient of $X^p Y^j$ is

$$\frac{(-1)^j}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots j} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right)^j \phi.$$

The modulus of this transformation of ϕ is $\psi(x, y)$.

28. When in the preceding example $n = 4$, and $\phi(x, y)$ and $\psi(x, y)$ are replaced by U , find the values of V_0, V_1, V_2, V_3, V_4 .

$$\text{Ans. } U(1, 0, H_x, G_x, IU^2 - 3H_x^2)(X, Y)^4.$$

29. Prove for two cubics U and V

$$Q^2 = 16 \begin{vmatrix} I_{11} & I_{21} & I_{31} \\ I_{12} & I_{22} & I_{32} \\ I_{13} & I_{23} & I_{33} \end{vmatrix},$$

where I_{11} , I_{12} , &c., are the invariants of the three Hessians, and Q has the same signification as in Art. 192.

30. Eliminate x' from the equations

$$z = (a_0x' + a_1)x + (a_0x'^2 + 3a_1x' + 2a_2)y, \quad (a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3)(x', 1)^3 = 0. \\ \text{Ans. } z^3 + 3H_{x,y}z + G_{x,y} = 0.$$

31. Transform the quadric $(a, b, c, f, g, h)(x, y, z)^2$ to X, Y, Z , where

$$X = \alpha_1x + \beta_1y + \gamma_1z, \quad Y = \alpha_2x + \beta_2y + \gamma_2z, \quad Z = \alpha_3x + \beta_3y + \gamma_3z.$$

$$\text{Ans. } \begin{vmatrix} \Pi_{11} & \Pi_{12} & \Pi_{13} & X \\ \Pi_{21} & \Pi_{22} & \Pi_{23} & Y \\ \Pi_{31} & \Pi_{32} & \Pi_{33} & Z \\ X & Y & Z & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

where $\Pi_{ij} \equiv A\alpha_i\alpha_j + B\beta_i\beta_j + C\gamma_i\gamma_j + F(\beta_i\gamma_j + \beta_j\gamma_i) + G(\gamma_i\alpha_j + \alpha_i\gamma_j) + H(\alpha_i\beta_j + \alpha_j\beta_i)$, and A, B, C, F, G, H are the coefficients of the tangential form of

$$(a, b, c, f, g, h)(x, y, z)^2.$$

32. Prove that the quartic $(a, b, c, d, e)(x, y)^4$ may be transformed into

$$k\eta(4\xi^3 - I\xi\eta^2 + J\eta^3)$$

by the substitution

$$\xi = lx + my, \quad \eta = x - \delta y,$$

where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ are the roots, and

$$12l = -\Sigma(\alpha - \delta)(\beta - \delta), \quad 12m = \Sigma\alpha(\beta - \delta)(\gamma - \delta),$$

and k is a function of $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$.

33. When U_x is a quartic, and H_x its Hessian, prove that the factors of $U_xH_y - U_yH_x$ are $x - y$ and the three quadratic factors of G_x (Art. 183) when xy replaces x^2 , and $x + y$ replaces $2x$.

34. Prove that all quartic covariants of U_x whose roots are rational functions of the roots of U_x are included in the formula

$$(\rho^4 + \frac{1}{2}I\rho^2 - 2J\rho + \frac{1}{18}I^2)U_x - (4\rho^3 - I\rho + J)H_x. \quad (\text{MR. RUSSELL.})$$

How is this example connected with the preceding?

35. Prove that $\frac{x-\alpha}{\delta-\alpha} + \frac{x-\beta}{\delta-\beta} + \frac{x-\gamma}{\delta-\gamma}$ is a factor of $I^2U_x - 16JH_x$,

where

$$U_x \equiv (x-\alpha)(x-\beta)(x-\gamma)(x-\delta).$$

36. If U_x and U'_ξ be two quartics which have the same absolute invariant, prove that

$$IJ'H_xU'_\xi - I'JH'_\xi U_x$$

may be resolved into four factors of the form

$$Ax\xi + Bx + C\xi + D. \quad (\text{MR. RUSSELL.})$$

37. If the leading coefficient of a covariant involve the coefficients of several quantities in the orders $\varpi_1, \varpi_2, \dots, \varpi_r$ and weights $\kappa_1, \kappa_2, \dots, \kappa_r$, the degree of the covariant is

$$n_1\varpi_1 + n_2\varpi_2 + \dots + n_r\varpi_r - 2(\kappa_1 + \kappa_2 + \dots + \kappa_r). \quad (\text{Art. 166.})$$

38. If for every difference $\alpha_p - \alpha_q$, in the formation of a seminvariant ϕ of an equation $U = 0$, we substitute

$$U \frac{(\alpha_p - \alpha_q)}{(x - \alpha_p)(x - \alpha_q)},$$

prove that the result is the product of the covariant whose leader is ϕ by $U^{\kappa-\varpi}$, where ϖ is the order and κ the weight of ϕ .

39. When U is a quintic, what are the invariants of the quartic emanant

$$\left(x' \frac{d}{dx} + y' \frac{d}{dy}\right)^4 U?$$

Ans. The quadric and cubic covariants I_x and J_x .

40. Give the relation connecting the covariants H_x, G_x, I_x, J_x , of any quantic U .

$$\text{Ans. } -G_x^2 = 4H_x^3 - U^2H_xI_x + U^3J_x.$$

41. Show how to transform a quantic of an odd order so that all the new coefficients shall be invariants.

Ans. Take two linear covariants for the new X and Y .

42. Find the relation which connects the coefficients of two quartics when their roots are connected by the relation

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \alpha & \alpha' & \alpha\alpha' \\ 1 & \beta & \beta' & \beta\beta' \\ 1 & \gamma & \gamma' & \gamma\gamma' \\ 1 & \delta & \delta' & \delta\delta' \end{vmatrix} = 0.$$

$$\text{Ans. } I^3J'^2 - I'^3J^2 = 0.$$

(Cf. Ex. 13, p. 54; and 13, 14, p. 119, Vol. I.)

43. Transform a cubic U into its cubic covariant G_x by linear transformation. Making the transformation given by the equation

$$x' \frac{dH_x}{dx} + y' \frac{dH_x}{dy} = 0, \text{ the result is } \Delta G_{x'}.$$

44. Transform a quartic U into itself by linear transformation.

If
$$U = A(x^4 + y^4) + 2Bx^2y^2,$$

the quadratic factors of the covariant G_x are $xy, x^2 + y^2, x^2 - y^2$; now making the transformation determined by the equation $x' \frac{d\phi}{dx} + y' \frac{d\phi}{dy} = 0$, where ϕ is any one of these three factors, U is transformed into U' .

45. Prove that the quadratic factors u, v, w of G_x expressed in terms of the roots are unchanged when for $x, a, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ their reciprocals are substituted and fractions removed by the multiplier $(-1)x^2a\beta\gamma\delta$.

It appears, therefore, that a_0u, a_0v, a_0w may separately be regarded as covariants if the rational domain, which before included only the coefficients, be regarded as extended by the adjunction to it of the roots a, β, γ, δ . (See Art. 168.)

46. If three quadratics be mutually harmonic, prove that they may be reduced to the forms

$$AX^2 + CY^2, \quad AX^2 - CY^2, \quad BXY.$$

47. If $\phi(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ be a seminvariant of U_n , prove that

$$\phi(Da_0, Da_1, Da_2, \dots, Da_n)$$

is an invariant or seminvariant of U_{n-1} , where

$$D \equiv a_0 \frac{d}{da_1} + 2a_1 \frac{d}{da_2} + \dots + na_{n-1} \frac{d}{da_n}.$$

48. Form for a quintic a seminvariant whose order is 4 and weight 8.

The terms contained in the complete *gradient** $G_{4,8}$ are as follows:—

$$a_0^2a_4^2, a_1^2a_2a_4, a_0a_1a_3a_4, a_0a_2^2a_4, a_0a_2a_3^2, a_1^2a_3^2, a_1a_2^2a_3, a_2^4, a_0^2a_3a_5, a_0a_1a_2a_5, a_1^3a_5.$$

Operating with D , and making $DG_{4,8} \equiv 0$, we find seminvariants of the type

$$lS + mI^2,$$

where I has the usual meaning, and

$$S = a_0^2a_4^2 - 3a_0a_1a_3a_4 - 4a_0a_2^2a_4 + 4a_0a_2a_3^2 + 5a_1^2a_2a_4 + 2a_1^2a_3^2 - 8a_1a_2^2a_3 \\ + 3a_2^4 - a_5(a_0^2a_3 - 3a_0a_1a_2 + 2a_1^3).$$

* The term 'gradient' is used to signify the sum, with arbitrary multipliers, of all possible terms of any assigned order and weight.

SECTION IV.—GEOMETRICAL TRANSFORMATIONS.*

212. Transformation of Binary to Ternary Forms.

—We think it desirable, before closing the present chapter, to give a brief account of a simple transformation from a binary to a ternary system of variables, whereby a geometrical interpretation may be given to several of the results contained in the preceding chapters. The applications which follow will be sufficient to explain this mode of transformation; and will enable the student acquainted with the principles of analytic geometry to trace further the analogy which exists between the two systems.

Denoting the original variables, i.e. the variables of the binary system, by x_0, y_0 , we propose to transform to a ternary system by the substitutions

$$x = x_0^2, \quad y = 2x_0y_0, \quad z = y_0^2,$$

a form to which the general quadratic transformation may be brought by a linear transformation of the ternary variables.

For example, taking the simple case of a quadratic whose roots are α, β , viz.,

$$x_0^2 - (\alpha + \beta) x_0y_0 + \alpha\beta y_0^2 = 0,$$

and transforming, we obtain

$$x - \frac{1}{2}(\alpha + \beta)y + \alpha\beta z = 0. \quad (1)$$

We have also the equation

$$y^2 - 4zx = 0.$$

This is the equation of a conic, which we uniformly call K , and (1) is plainly the equation of a chord of this conic joining the points α and β , the point determined by the equations

$$\frac{x}{\phi^2} = \frac{y}{2\phi} = z, \quad \text{where } \phi = \frac{x_0}{y_0},$$

being referred to as the point ϕ on the conic K .

* See *Quarterly Journal of Mathematics*, vol. x., p. 211, 1869.

When $a = \beta$ the quadratic becomes $(x_0 - ay_0)^2$, i.e. the square of a factor of the first degree; also (1) reduces to $x - ay + a^2z = 0$, which is plainly the equation of the tangent at the point a to the conic K ; whence the line corresponding to a quadratic with distinct roots is a chord of the conic K , this line becoming a tangent when the roots are equal.

In further illustration of this method, we consider the binary sextic and quintic, so as to show how the transformation is presented differently according as the degree of the quantic is even or odd. In the former case we have

$$U_0 = (x_0 - a_1y_0)(x_0 - a_2y_0)(x_0 - a_3y_0)(x_0 - a_4y_0)(x_0 - a_5y_0)(x_0 - a_6y_0),$$

which becomes by transformation

$$c_{12}c_{34}c_{56}, \quad c_{12}c_{35}c_{46}, \quad c_{12}c_{36}c_{45},$$

or some other of the fifteen similar products of chords, where $c_{12} = x - \frac{1}{2}(a_1 + a_2)y + a_1a_2z$ is the chord 1, 2; and c_{34} , c_{56} , &c., have a like signification. In the second case, viz. when the degree of the binary quantic is odd, we must square U_0 before making the transformation. Thus if U_0 represents the product of the first five factors written above, U_0^2 becomes when transformed $t_1t_2t_3t_4t_5$, where $t_1 = x - a_1y + a_1^2z$ is the tangent to K at the point a_1 , and t_2 , t_3 , &c., have a like signification.

213. The Quadratic and Systems of Quadratics.—

The only invariant that a quadratic has is its discriminant; and this is also an invariant in the ternary system, its vanishing being the condition that the line corresponding to the quadratic should touch the conic K . We now consider the system of two quadratics

$$ax_0^2 + 2bx_0y_0 + cy_0^2, \quad a'x_0^2 + 2b'x_0y_0 + c'y_0^2,$$

which we call L and M .

When transformed they become two lines

$$L = ax + by + cz, \quad M = a'x + b'y + c'z.$$

Now the condition that the line whose equation is $\lambda L + \mu M = 0$ should touch the conic K is

$$\lambda^2(ac - b^2) + \lambda\mu(ac' + a'c - 2bb') + \mu^2(a'c' - b'^2) = 0. \quad (2)$$

All the coefficients of this equation are invariants in both systems: we have already seen that this is true of the first and last coefficients; and the intermediate coefficient which is the harmonic invariant of the binary system is an invariant in the ternary system also, its vanishing expressing the condition that the lines L, M should be conjugate with regard to the conic K . This equation determines the tangents which can be drawn through the point of intersection of L and M to the conic K . When this point is on the conic, the tangents coincide, and the discriminant of the quadratic vanishes. Whence we obtain geometrically the following form for the resultant of two quadratics:—

$$R = 4(ac - b^2)(a'c' - b'^2) - (ac' + a'c - 2bb')^2;$$

for if L, M , and K have a common point, the original quadratics must have a common root, and the condition is in each case the same.

Again, the pairs of points or lines given by the equation $\lambda L + \mu M = 0$ form a system in involution (cf. Art. 190), the double points or lines being determined by the equation (2); and in the ternary system the corresponding pencil of lines passing through a fixed point determines on a conic a system of points in involution, the double points being the points of contact of tangents drawn to the conic from the fixed point.

If we consider next the three quadratics

$$a_1x_0^2 + 2b_1x_0y_0 + c_1y_0^2, \quad a_2x_0^2 + 2b_2x_0y_0 + c_2y_0^2, \quad a_3x_0^2 + 2b_3x_0y_0 + c_3y_0^2,$$

it is seen that the determinant $(a_1b_2c_3)$ is an invariant in both systems, its vanishing being the condition in the binary system that the quadratics should determine an involution (Ex. 16, p. 202), and in the ternary system that the three corresponding lines should meet in a point.

As a final illustration, we consider a system of three quadratics connected in pairs by the harmonic relations

$$a_1c_2 + a_2c_1 - 2b_1b_2 = 0, \text{ \&c.}$$

Transforming the quadratics, we obtain three lines X, Y, Z , which form a self-conjugate triangle with regard to the conic K . The theorem relating to three mutually harmonic quadratics, viz. that their squares are connected by an identical linear relation (see Ex. 6, p. 137), is suggested by a well-known property of conics; for K may be expressed in terms of X, Y, Z in the form

$$K = X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2;$$

whence, restoring the original variables x_0, y_0 , K_0 vanishes identically, and X, Y, Z become the original quadratics, each divided by a factor which may be seen to be the square root of its discriminant (see (1), Ex. 6, p. 137; also Ex. 17, p. 203).

214. The Quartic and its Covariants treated geometrically.—It will appear from the investigations in the succeeding Articles that in applying the transformation now under consideration to the quartic $U_0 = (a, b, c, d, e)(x_0, y_0)^4$, the term $6cx_0^2y_0^2$ should be replaced by $2cxz + cy^2$, so that the quartic will be replaced by the two following conics:—

$$U = ax^2 + cy^2 + ez^2 + 2dyz + 2czx + 2bxy,$$

$$K = y^2 - 4zx;$$

the form of U here selected being connected with K by an invariant relation. The invariants of U and K are invariants of the original binary form, for the discriminant of $U - \rho K$ is

$$4\rho^3 - I\rho + J,$$

and the invariants of the ternary system are

$$\Delta' = -4, \quad \Theta' = 0, \quad \Theta = I, \quad \Delta = J;$$

where I and J are the invariants of the quartic, the discriminant of $U - \rho K$ being written as usual under the form

$$\Delta - \rho\Theta + \rho^2\Theta' - \rho^3\Delta'.$$

Let the conics U and K intersect in the points A, B, C, D , these points being determined by the equations

$$\frac{x}{\phi^2} = \frac{y}{2\phi} = z,$$

when ϕ has the four values $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$, the roots of the binary quartic; and let the points of intersection of the common chords $BC, AD; CA, BD; AB, CD$ be E, F, G , respectively, where EFG is the triangle self-conjugate with regard to both conics. Now, denoting by $(\alpha\beta) = 0$ the equation of the line AB , and using a similar notation for the remaining chords, we have by the theory of conics

$$U - \rho_1 K = (\beta\gamma)(\alpha\delta), \quad U - \rho_2 K = (\gamma\alpha)(\beta\delta), \quad U - \rho_3 K = (\alpha\beta)(\gamma\delta),$$

where ρ_1, ρ_2, ρ_3 are the roots of the equation $4\rho^3 - I\rho + J = 0$.

On restoring the original variables x_0, y_0 in these equations, K vanishes identically; and we have U_0 resolved into a pair of quadratic factors in three different ways, depending on the solution of the reducing cubic of the quartic. Whence it appears that the resolution of a quartic into its pairs of quadratic factors, and the determination of the pairs of lines which pass through the four intersections of two conics, are identical problems, each depending on the solution of the same cubic equation.

We now proceed to show that the sides of the common self-conjugate triangle of U, K correspond to the quadratic factors of the sextic covariant in the binary system. Since the side FG is the polar of E , the coordinates x', y' of E are found by solving the equations $(\beta\gamma) = 0, (\alpha\delta) = 0$; we have, therefore,

$$\frac{x'}{\beta\gamma(\alpha + \delta) - \alpha\delta(\beta + \gamma)} = \frac{y'}{2(\beta\gamma - \alpha\delta)} = \frac{z'}{\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta},$$

and, substituting for x', y', z' the values thus determined in the polar of E , viz.,

$$xz' - \frac{yy'}{2} + x'z = 0,$$

we express this equation in the form

$$(\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta)x - (\beta\gamma - \alpha\delta)y + (\beta\gamma(\alpha + \delta) - \alpha\delta(\beta + \gamma))z = 0.$$

On restoring the original variables x_0, y_0 , this is seen to be one of the quadratic factors of the sextic covariant (Art. 183). It is therefore proved that the points where FG meets K are determined by the quadratic equation,

$$(\beta + \gamma - \alpha - \delta)\phi^2 - 2(\beta\gamma - \alpha\delta)\phi + \beta\gamma(\alpha + \delta) - \alpha\delta(\beta + \gamma) = 0;$$

and consequently the six points on K which correspond to the roots of the sextic covariant are the points where this conic meets the sides of the common self-conjugate triangle of U and K .

To determine the points on K which correspond to the roots of the Hessian, we calculate for the conics U and K the covariant conic \mathbf{F} (Salmon's *Conic Sections*, Art. 378); thus finding

$$-\frac{1}{4}\mathbf{F} = (ac - b^2)x^2 + (bd - c^2)y^2 + (ce - a^2)z^2 + (be - cd)yz \\ + (ae - 2bd + c^2)zx + (ad - bc)xy;$$

and on restoring the original variables, we have

$$H(x_0, y_0)^4 = -\frac{1}{4}\mathbf{F}_0;$$

also, since the conic \mathbf{F} intersects U and K in the points of contact of their common tangents, we see that the points on K corresponding to the roots of the Hessian are the points so determined. Conversely, transforming the Hessian $U_{11}U_{22} - U_{12}^2$ to the ternary variables, it becomes

$$(ax + by + cz)(cx + dy + ez) - (bx + cy + dz)^2 = -\frac{1}{4}\mathbf{F},$$

which is the envelope of the polar $x'U_1 + y'U_2 + z'U_3$ for all points on K . This determination of \mathbf{F} is due to the invariant Θ' of U and K vanishing.

215. We now give some general transformations from the binary system to the ternary, which will be useful in comparing the concomitants in both systems.

(1). *Linear transformation of both systems.*

If the binary variables be linearly transformed, the new variables expressed in terms of the old being

$$X_0 = \lambda x_0 + \mu y_0, \quad Y_0 = \lambda' x_0 + \mu' y_0,$$

the new ternary variables will be expressed in terms of the old as follows:—

$$\begin{aligned} X &= \lambda^2 x + \lambda \mu y + \mu^2 z, \\ Y &= 2\lambda \lambda' x + (\lambda \mu' + \lambda' \mu) y + 2\mu \mu' z, \\ Z &= \lambda'^2 x + \lambda' \mu' y + \mu'^2 z; \end{aligned}$$

and, consequently,

$$Y^2 - 4ZX = (\lambda \mu' - \lambda' \mu)^2 (y^2 - 4zx),$$

showing that *the form of the fixed conic is unaltered* by the above particular linear transformation of x, y, z , which conversely leads to the *general* linear transformation of the primitive binary variables. The modulus of this ternary transformation is $(\lambda \mu' - \lambda' \mu)^3$ (see Ex. 4, p. 88).

(2). *Transformation of Partial Differential Coefficients.*

If $f(x_0, y_0)$ becomes U by the substitution of Art. 212, we have

$$\frac{df}{dx_0} = 2x_0 \frac{dU}{dx} + 2y_0 \frac{dU}{dy},$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 f}{dx_0^2} &= 2 \frac{dU}{dx} + 4 \left(x \frac{d^2 U}{dx^2} + y \frac{d^2 U}{dx dy} + z \frac{d^2 U}{dx dz} \right) - 4z \left(\frac{d^2 U}{dx dz} - \frac{d^2 U}{dy^2} \right) \\ &= 4 \frac{d}{dx} \left(x \frac{dU}{dx} + y \frac{dU}{dy} + z \frac{dU}{dz} \right) - 2 \frac{dU}{dx} - 4z \Pi(U), \end{aligned}$$

where Π is used to denote the operation $\frac{d^2}{dz dx} - \frac{d^2}{dy^2}$.

Hence, the degree of f being n , and therefore of U being $\frac{1}{2}n$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 f}{dx_0^2} &= 2(n-1) \frac{dU}{dx} - 4z \Pi(U), \quad \text{and similarly} \\ \frac{d^2 f}{dx_0 dy_0} &= 2(n-1) \frac{dU}{dy} + 2y \Pi(U), \\ \frac{d^2 f}{dy_0^2} &= 2(n-1) \frac{dU}{dz} - 4x \Pi(U). \end{aligned}$$

If the transformation be such that $\Pi(U)$ vanishes identically, we have, for the transformation of the second differential coefficients, the following simple values:—

$$\frac{d^2 f}{dx_0^2} = 2(n-1) \frac{dU}{dx}, \quad \frac{d^2 f}{dx_0 dy_0} = 2(n-1) \frac{dU}{dy}, \quad \frac{d^2 f}{dy_0^2} = 2(n-1) \frac{dU}{dz}.$$

From these values we find easily

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(x'_0 \frac{d}{dx_0} + y'_0 \frac{d}{dy_0} \right)^2 f = (n-1) \left(x' \frac{dU}{dx} + y' \frac{dU}{dy} + z' \frac{dU}{dz} \right),$$

showing that the second emanant (Art. 174) in the binary system is transformed into the first polar in the ternary system; and in like manner all the even emanants are transformed into polar curves of one-half the degree.

Again, if the second differential coefficients of $f(x_0, y_0)$ when expressed in the ternary system be represented as follows:—

$$\frac{d^2 f}{dx_0^2} = \phi_1(x, y, z), \quad \frac{d^2 f}{dx_0 dy_0} = \phi_2(x, y, z), \quad \frac{d^2 f}{dy_0^2} = \phi_3(x, y, z),$$

we will have $\Pi(x\phi_1 + y\phi_2 + z\phi_3) = 0$,

provided that $\Pi(\phi_1) = 0$, $\Pi(\phi_2) = 0$, and $\Pi(\phi_3) = 0$;

for
$$\frac{d^2 \phi_1}{dy_0^2} = \frac{d^2 \phi_2}{dx_0 dy_0} = \frac{d^2 \phi_3}{dx_0^2},$$

and therefore by what precedes

$$\frac{d\phi_1}{dz} = \frac{d\phi_2}{dy} = \frac{d\phi_3}{dx};$$

but
$$\Pi(x\phi_1 + y\phi_2 + z\phi_3) = \frac{d\phi_1}{dz} + \frac{d\phi_3}{dx} - 2 \frac{d\phi_2}{dy},$$

which vanishes identically.

Moreover, it may be noticed that when $\Pi(\phi_1)$, $\Pi(\phi_2)$, $\Pi(\phi_3)$ do not vanish, we have in general

$$(n-3) \Pi(x\phi_1 + y\phi_2 + z\phi_3) = (n-1) \{x\Pi(\phi_1) + y\Pi(\phi_2) + z\Pi(\phi_3)\}.$$

(3). *Transformation of the Jacobian.*

The Jacobian of any binary system u, v , is transformed into the Jacobian of U, V, K , with sign changed, U, V being the transformed values of u, v . For we have

$$J(u, v) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{du}{dx_0} & \frac{du}{dy_0} \\ \frac{dv}{dx_0} & \frac{dv}{dy_0} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{(n-1)(n'-1)} \begin{vmatrix} ax_0 + by_0 & bx_0 + cy_0 \\ a'x_0 + b'y_0 & b'x_0 + c'y_0 \end{vmatrix},$$

n and n' being the degrees of u and v , respectively, and a, b, c being used to denote the second differential coefficients; whence we have

$$J(u, v) = \frac{1}{(n-1)(n'-1)} \begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ a' & b' & c' \\ y_0^2 & -x_0y_0 & x_0^2 \end{vmatrix} = - \begin{vmatrix} \frac{dU}{dx} & \frac{dU}{dy} & \frac{dU}{dz} \\ \frac{dV}{dx} & \frac{dV}{dy} & \frac{dV}{dz} \\ \frac{dK}{dx} & \frac{dK}{dy} & \frac{dK}{dz} \end{vmatrix},$$

the last determinant being obtained from the preceding by the transformation in (2).

In connexion with this transformation, it may be noticed that

$$J(U + \phi K, V + \psi K, K) = J(U, V, K) + K\{J(\phi, \psi, K) + \&c.\},$$

whence it follows that $J(U + \phi K, V + \psi K, K)$ and $J(U, V, K)$ give when transformed the same covariant in the binary system.

(4). *The Hessian and other concomitants.*

For the transformation of the Hessian we have

$$\begin{aligned} n^2 (n-1)^2 H(u) &= \frac{d^2u}{dx_0^2} \frac{d^2u}{dy_0^2} - \left(\frac{d^2u}{dx_0 dy_0} \right) \\ &= 4 (n-1)^2 \left\{ \frac{dU}{dx} \frac{dU}{dz} - \left(\frac{dU}{dy} \right)^2 \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

which proves that one curve into which the Hessian may be

transformed is the locus of the poles with regard to U of tangents to the fixed conic.

The line corresponding to the binary concomitant

$$(x_0 y'_0 - x'_0 y_0)^2 \quad \text{is} \quad xz' + \frac{1}{2}yy' + zx',$$

which is the polar of x', y', z' with regard to the fixed conic K .

If the quadratics

$$ax_0^2 + 2bx_0y_0 + cy_0^2, \quad a'x_0^2 + 2b'x_0y_0 + c'y_0^2$$

become, when transformed, the lines L, M , the Jacobian $J(L, M, K)$ determines the polar line of their intersection with regard to the fixed conic K .

The curve corresponding to the covariant $(1, 2)^2 u_1 u_2$ is

$$\frac{dU}{dx} \frac{dV}{dz} + \frac{dU}{dz} \frac{dV}{dx} - 2 \frac{dU}{dy} \frac{dV}{dy},$$

which equated to zero is the condition that the polar lines of a point with regard to U and V should be conjugate with regard to the fixed conic. This covariant may be written under the form $\Pi(UV)$, when $\Pi(U) = 0$, $\Pi(V) = 0$. In the same way it appears that the curve which corresponds to the covariant $(1, 2)^{2r} u_1 u_2$ is $\Pi^r(U, V)$.

216. When the transformation of Art. 212 is applied to a quantic $f(x_0, y_0)$ of even degree $2m$, it is plain that the roots of this quantic will be determined geometrically by the points of intersection of a curve of the m^{th} degree with the fixed conic K . If the degree of the quantic is odd, it must, as already stated, be squared before the transformation is effected; and the roots will then be determined geometrically by the points of contact of the corresponding curve with the conic.

In transforming the quantic $f(x_0, y_0)$ we may obtain an indefinite number of ternary forms by varying the mode of transformation; for if U be any one of these forms, $U + \phi_{m-2}K$, in which the coefficients of ϕ_{m-2} are arbitrary, would equally well be a transformation of $f(x_0, y_0)$, since this form would, on restoring the original variables, return to the quantic

$f(x_0, y_0)$. Moreover, every possible transformation is included in the foregoing form. It is, however, important to notice that among these innumerable ternary forms *there is always one, and only one, such that the invariants and covariants of this form combined with K are invariants and covariants of the binary quantic also.* To determine this form, take the operator Π of the preceding Article, which, as can be easily seen, is obtained by substituting the differential symbols D_x, D_y, D_z in the tangential form of K or $D_z, -2D_y, D_x$ for x, y, z in K itself. Operating then with Π on $U + \phi_{m-2}K$, we obtain a result Ψ_{m-2} of the degree $m-2$; and equating to zero its coefficients, we have equations sufficient to determine all the coefficients of ϕ_{m-2} . The required transformation therefore is *unique*, since these equations are of the first degree. It may also be noticed that

$$\Pi K \phi_{m-2} = K \Pi \phi_{m-2} - 2(2m-1) \phi_{m-2}.$$

This mode of fixing the form of $U + \phi_{m-2}K$ is unaltered by any linear transformation of the binary variables and the consequent linear transformation of the ternary variables; for, referring to (1), Art. 215, it is easily proved that the differential operator

$$\frac{d^2}{dzdx} - \frac{d^2}{dy^2} = (\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^2 \left(\frac{d^2}{dZdX} - \frac{d^2}{dY^2} \right);$$

and if after this linear transformation any function $f(x, y, z)$ becomes $F(X, Y, Z)$, we have

$$\frac{d^2 f}{dzdx} - \frac{d^2 f}{dy^2} = (\lambda\mu' - \lambda'\mu)^2 \left(\frac{d^2 F}{dZdX} - \frac{d^2 F}{dY^2} \right),$$

which proves that the form $F(X, Y, Z)$ is fixed by the same law as $f(x, y, z)$, and this law is independent of the linear transformation of the binary system.

The following method may be employed to obtain the proper form of U corresponding to a given binary quantic of even degree. Let the quartic $u_4 = (a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4)(x_0, y_0)^4$ be written in the form

$$\frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} \left\{ x_0^2 \frac{d^2 u_4}{dx_0^2} + 2x_0 y_0 \frac{d^2 u_4}{dx_0 dy_0} + y_0^2 \frac{d^2 u_4}{dy_0^2} \right\};$$

transforming the second differential coefficients, and multiplying the terms by x, y, z , respectively, we obtain the proper form for U , such that $\Pi(U) = 0$, viz.,

$$a_0x^2 + a_2y^2 + a_4z^2 + 2a_3yz + 2a_2zx + 2a_1xy.$$

Again, in the case of the sextic u_6 , writing it in the form

$$\frac{1}{5 \cdot 6} \left\{ x_0^2 \frac{d^2 u_6}{dx_0^2} + 2x_0y_0 \frac{d^2 u_6}{dx_0 dy_0} + y_0^2 \frac{d^2 u_6}{dy_0^2} \right\};$$

transforming the quartics $\frac{d^2 u_6}{dx_0^2}, \frac{d^2 u_6}{dx_0 dy_0}, \frac{d^2 u_6}{dy_0^2}$ in the manner just explained, and multiplying them by x, y, z , respectively, we obtain a ternary cubic U of the proper form (see (2), Art. 215). In a similar manner the transformation of the octavic is made to depend on that of the sextic; and proceeding in this way step by step we may transform any binary quantic u of even degree to a ternary quantic U of half the degree, such that $\Pi(U) = 0$. For a direct determination of this ternary form see note E at the end of this volume.

As we have hitherto taken the simplest form for the ternary variables expressed in terms of the binary variables, it is therefore desirable to determine the operational symbol Π when the conic K is given by the general equations

$$x = (a_1, b_1, c_1)(x_0, y_0)^2, \quad y = (a_2, b_2, c_2)(x_0, y_0)^2, \quad z = (a_3, b_3, c_3)(x_0, y_0)^2.$$

Now, if $\lambda x + \mu y + \nu z$ be a square when expressed in terms of the binary variables,

$$(\lambda a_1 + \mu a_2 + \nu a_3)(\lambda c_1 + \mu c_2 + \nu c_3) - (\lambda b_1 + \mu b_2 + \nu b_3)^2 = 0;$$

whence the tangential equation of the conic K assumes the form

$$(I_{11}, I_{22}, I_{33}, I_{23}, I_{31}, I_{12})(\lambda, \mu, \nu)^2 = 0,$$

where

$$2I_{pq} = a_p c_q + a_q c_p - 2b_p b_q;$$

and hence the general value of Π is

$$(I_{11}, I_{22}, I_{33}, I_{23}, I_{31}, I_{12})(D_x, D_y, D_z)^2.$$

The general forms of K and Π are thus independent of any linear transformation of the binary variables, as all the coefficients are invariants in that system.

217. **Combined System of a Quartic and Quadratic.**

—Transforming this binary system we have a ternary system composed of two conics and a line; and for simplicity we shall suppose the conics referred to their common self-conjugate triangle. Denoting the quartic and quadratic by U_0 and L_0 , respectively, and the corresponding ternary forms by U and L , we have

$$\begin{aligned} U &= ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2, & a + b + c &= 0, \\ K &= x^2 + y^2 + z^2, & bc + ca + ab &= I_2, \\ L &= ax + \beta y + \gamma z, & abc &= I_3. \end{aligned}$$

To obtain the linear covariants of this system, since a, β, γ are the coordinates of the pole of L with regard to K , the polar of this point with regard to U is $ax + b\beta y + c\gamma z = M$, the first covariant; and treating M in the same way, $a\alpha, b\beta, c\gamma$ being the coordinates of its pole with regard to K , the polar of this point with regard to U is $a^2ax + b^2\beta y + c^2\gamma z = N$, which is a second covariant. We cannot derive any more independent linear covariants in this way, for the next one so derived is

$$a^3ax + b^3\beta y + c^3\gamma z = a(bc - I_2)ax + b(ca - I_2)\beta y + c(ab - I_2)\gamma z,$$

which can therefore be expressed in terms of L and M in the form $I_3L - I_2M$. But three more linear covariants L', M', N' may be obtained by taking the poles of L, M, N with regard to K , and joining them two and two. This system may be expressed by the Jacobians

$$J(M, N, K), \quad J(N, L, K), \quad J(L, M, K).$$

We have therefore obtained six linear covariants, viz., L, M, N , and L', M', N' ; to which all others may be reduced, for example,

$$\begin{aligned} t_n &\equiv a^n ax + b^n \beta y + c^n \gamma z \\ &= a^{n-2}(bc - I_2)ax + b^{n-2}(ca - I_2)\beta y + c^{n-2}(ab - I_2)\gamma z \\ &= I_3 t_{n-3} - I_2 t_{n-2}; \end{aligned}$$

also

$$b^2c^2ax + c^2a^2\beta y + a^2b^2\gamma z = I_2^2L + I_3M + I_2N,$$

since

$$bc = a^2 + I_2, \quad ca = b^2 + I_2, \quad ab = c^2 + I_2.$$

Similarly, $b^n c^n a x + c^n a^n \beta y + a^n b^n \gamma z$ may be reduced to the form $AL + BM + CN$; and other reductions which present themselves impose no difficulty.

These six linear covariants when transformed give six quadratic covariants in the binary system.

There are six invariants, but only three are special invariants of this system. To obtain them, let the condition that $\lambda L + \mu M + \nu N$ should touch K be

$$D_0 \lambda^2 + D_2 \mu^2 + D_4 \nu^2 + 2D_3 \mu \nu + 2D_2 \nu \lambda + 2D_1 \lambda \mu = 0;$$

whence we obtain five invariants, D_0, D_1, D_2, D_3, D_4 , where $D_n = a^n \alpha^2 + b^n \beta^2 + c^n \gamma^2$, three of which only are independent, for

$$\begin{aligned} D_n &= a^{n-2} (bc - I_2) \alpha^2 + b^{n-2} (ca - I_2) \beta^2 + c^{n-2} (ab - I_2) \gamma^2 \\ &= I_3 D_{n-3} - I_2 D_{n-2}; \end{aligned}$$

whence $D_3 = I_3 D_0 - I_2 D_1, \quad D_4 = I_3 D_1 - I_2 D_2;$

and thus we obtain no more than the five invariants I_2, I_3, D_0, D_1, D_2 , the two last being special invariants. D_1 vanishes when L and M are conjugate with regard to K , and D_2 when L and N are conjugate with regard to K .

The remaining special invariant, which is skew, may be obtained as the eliminant of L, M, N , or as $J(D_0, D_1, D_2)$, viz.,

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & \beta & \gamma \\ a\alpha & b\beta & c\gamma \\ a^2\alpha & b^2\beta & c^2\gamma \end{vmatrix} = R_{123}^*.$$

The square of the last invariant can be expressed in terms of D_0, D_1, D_2 , for

$$R_{123}^2 = \begin{vmatrix} a & \beta & \gamma \\ a\alpha & b\beta & c\gamma \\ a^2\alpha & b^2\beta & c^2\gamma \end{vmatrix}^2 = \begin{vmatrix} D_0 & D_1 & D_2 \\ D_1 & D_2 & D_3 \\ D_2 & D_3 & D_4 \end{vmatrix};$$

also $D_3 = I_3 D_0 - I_2 D_1, \quad D_4 = I_3 D_1 - I_2 D_2.$

* It is not permissible to infer in general that R_{123} is resolvable into factors, for if $a\beta\gamma$ be taken out as factor the remaining factor is not an invariant expressed in a rational form, and all irrational quantities are outside our domain of investigation here.

R_{123} plainly vanishes when L passes through one of the vertices of the common self-conjugate triangle of U and K .

We proceed now to express the resultant of the quadratic and quartic in terms of D_0, D_1, D_2 . This is the same problem as to find the condition that L should pass through one of the four points U, K , and is most easily solved by finding the condition that only one conic of the system $U - \rho K$ can be drawn to touch L . Now if L touch $U - \rho K$,

$$\rho^2(a^2 + \beta^2 + \gamma^2) - \rho(aa^2 + b\beta^2 + c\gamma^2) + bca^2 + ca\beta^2 + ab\gamma^2 = 0,$$

or

$$D_0\rho^2 - D_1\rho + D_2 + I_2D_0 = 0,$$

and if the discriminant of this quadratic be R , we have

$$R = D_1^2 - 4D_0D_2 - 4I_2D_0^2.$$

The geometrical meaning of the relation $D_1 = 0$ is that the line L is cut harmonically by the conics U and K .

To determine the quartic covariants of the binary system from the quadric covariants of the ternary system, we have in the ternary system three quadric covariants, viz. the Jacobians

$$J(L, U, K), \quad J(M, U, K), \quad J(N, U, K);$$

there are also the three conics

$$J(L, F, K), \quad J(M, F, K), \quad J(N, F, K),$$

where $a^2x^2 + b^2y^2 + c^2z^2$ is the harmonic conic F with sign changed.

These three conics are easily reduced, for

$$J(L, F, K) = J(M, U, K), \quad J(M, F, K) = J(N, U, K), \\ J(N, F, K) = I_2J(M, U, K) - I_3J(L, U, K);$$

whence there are only three special quadric covariants, and consequently only three special quartic covariants of the binary system.

Before concluding this Article, we give some of the forms which would have been obtained if we had employed the ordinary equations of the conics U and K , viz.,

$$U = ax^2 + cy^2 + ez^2 + 2dyz + 2czx + 2bxy, \\ K = y^2 - 4zx.$$

The condition that $L = ax + \beta y + \gamma z$ should touch $U - \rho K$, or its tangential equation, is now

$$\Sigma - \rho\Phi + \rho^2\Sigma' = 0, \quad \text{where}$$

$$\Sigma = (ce - d^2)\alpha^2 + (ae - c^2)\beta^2 + (ac - b^2)\gamma^2 \\ + 2(bc - ad)\beta\gamma + 2(bd - c^2)\gamma\alpha + 2(cd - be)\alpha\beta,$$

$$\Phi = ea^2 + 4c\beta^2 + a\gamma^2 - 4b\beta\gamma + 2c\gamma\alpha - 4da\beta,$$

$$\Sigma' = 4(\gamma\alpha - \beta^2).$$

Also R_{123} is the Jacobian of Σ, Φ, Σ' considered as conics; and

$$I = -4I_2, \quad J = -4I_3, \quad D_0 = \Sigma', \quad D_1 = \Phi, \quad D_2 = \Sigma - I_2\Sigma',$$

where I and J are as usual the invariants of the quartic.

218. **Principal Concomitants of the Sextic.**—The binary sextic u being the next even form of quantic, we proceed to indicate briefly how its invariants and the two *principal* covariants may be derived from the ternary system of a cubic and conic combined. The two covariants alluded to are the quartic I_{x_0} , whose leader is $a_0a_4 - 4a_1a_3 + 3a_2^2 = I$, and the quadratic $L_{x_0} = I_D(u)$; for, by treating these as a combined system, in the manner of Art. 217, we may obtain all the forms of the binary sextic as far as the fourth degree.

Transforming the sextic $u = (a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6)(x_0, y_0)^6$, we have the ternary cubic

$$U = a_0x^3 + a_3y^3 + a_6z^3 + 6a_3xyz \\ + 3\{a_1x^2y + a_2x^2z + a_2y^2x + a_4y^2z + a_4z^2x + a_5z^2y\}.$$

Now, forming the discriminant of

$$\frac{1}{6}\left(x' \frac{d}{dx} + y' \frac{d}{dy} + z' \frac{d}{dz}\right)^2 U - \lambda K',$$

$$\text{or} \quad (U_{11}, U_{22}, U_{33}, U_{23}, U_{31}, U_{12})(x', y', z')^3 - \lambda K',$$

we have

$$4\lambda^3 - I(U)\lambda + J(U), \quad \text{where}$$

$$I(U) = U_{11}U_{33} - 4U_{12}U_{23} + 3U_{22}^2,$$

$$J(U) = \begin{vmatrix} U_{11} & U_{12} & U_{13} \\ U_{21} & U_{22} & U_{23} \\ U_{31} & U_{32} & U_{33} \end{vmatrix}.$$

Expanding $I(U)$ in the form $(a_{11}, a_{22}, a_{33}, a_{23}, a_{31}, a_{12})(x, y, z)^2$, we find

$$a_{11} = a_0a_4 - 4a_1a_3 + 3a_2^2, \quad 2a_{23} = a_1a_5 - 3a_2a_5 + 2a_3a_4,$$

$$a_{22} = a_1a_5 - 4a_2a_4 + 3a_3^2, \quad 2a_{31} = a_0a_6 - 4a_1a_5 + 7a_2a_4 - 4a_3^2,$$

$$a_{33} = a_2a_6 - 4a_3a_5 + 3a_4^2, \quad 2a_{12} = a_0a_5 - 3a_1a_4 + 2a_2a_3;$$

also

$$J(U) = \begin{vmatrix} a_0x + a_1y + a_2z, & a_1x + a_2y + a_3z, & a_2x + a_3y + a_4z \\ a_1x + a_2y + a_3z, & a_2x + a_3y + a_4z, & a_3x + a_4y + a_5z \\ a_2x + a_3y + a_4z, & a_3x + a_4y + a_5z, & a_4x + a_5y + a_6z \end{vmatrix}.$$

Operating with Π on $I(U)$, we get

$$I_2 = a_0a_6 - 6a_1a_5 + 15a_2a_4 - 10a_3^2,$$

viz. the quadratic invariant of the sextic; and therefore

$$\Pi(I(U) + \frac{1}{6}I_2K) = 0.$$

Also $\Pi J(U) = L_x$ becomes L_{x_0} on transformation.

Again, if we form the discriminant of

$$I(U) + \frac{1}{6}I_2K - \lambda K,$$

we have

$$4\lambda^3 - I_4\lambda + I_6,$$

where I_4 and I_6 , the invariants of I_{x_0} , are invariants of the fourth and sixth orders of the sextic, the general form of all such invariants being

$$lI_4 + mI_2^2, \quad lI_2I_4 + mI_2^3 + nI_6.$$

The invariants which Salmon (*Higher Algebra*, p. 262) selects as fundamental are the invariants $-S$ and T of the cubic curve U (*Higher Plane Curves*, Arts. 220, 221; 3rd Ed.).

The condition that the cubic and conic should touch is expressed by the vanishing of an invariant I_{10} , and this invariant is the discriminant of the sextic.

The condition that three connectors of the six points of intersection of U and K should meet in a point is expressed by the vanishing of an invariant I_{15} ; this is the skew invariant

of the sextic, and may be obtained as the invariant R_{123} of Art. 217 for the combined system

$$I(U) + \frac{1}{6}I_2K, \quad K, \quad \Pi J(U).$$

The covariant I_{x_0} may also be obtained from the curve $U_1U_3 - U_2^2$, which transforms into H_{x_0} ; for, reducing by the relation $U_{31} = U_{22}$, we find

$$\frac{1}{4}\Pi(U_1U_3 - U_2^2) = U_{11}U_{33} - 4U_{12}U_{23} + 3U_{22}^2 = I(U).$$

The covariant L_x may also be obtained by substituting $D_z, -2D_y, D_x$ for x, y, z in $I(U)$, and operating on U .

219. Geometrical Representation of the Jacobian.—

In this Article we propose to find a curve which intersects the fixed conic K in points which represent the roots of the Jacobian of two quantities ϕ and ψ of the n^{th} degree.

Resolving $\frac{\psi}{\phi}$ into partial fractions, and then differentiating, we have

$$J_0(\phi, \psi) = n\phi^2 \sum_{r=1}^{r=n} \frac{\psi(a_r)}{\phi'(a_r)} \frac{1}{(x_0 - a_r y_0)^2}.$$

Now, passing to the ternary variables, $J_0(\phi, \psi)$ transformed becomes

$$J = (T_1 T_2 T_3 \dots T_n) \sum_{r=1}^{r=n} \frac{\psi(a_r)}{\phi'(a_r)} \frac{1}{T_r},$$

where $T_r = x - a_r y + a_r^2 z$, and $\phi(a_r) = 0$.

The curve J plainly passes through all the intersections of the tangents to K at the points $\phi = 0$. Moreover, interchanging ϕ and ψ , this curve passes through all the intersections of the tangents to K at the points $\psi = 0$, J only changing its sign by this interchange. This curve, therefore, passing through the $n(n-1)$ vertices of the two circumscribing polygons, intersects the conic K in $2(n-1)$ points determined by $J_0(\phi, \psi) = 0$.

It is important to notice that the equation of the curve J does not alter when $\lambda\phi + \psi$ is substituted for ψ , proving that there

are an infinite number of polygons circumscribing K and inscribed in J , the points of contact of their sides being determined by the equation $\lambda\phi + \psi = 0$, where λ may have any value; also the curve J of the $n - 1^{\text{st}}$ degree is completely fixed by the $2(n - 1)$ Jacobian points and the $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ vertices of one circumscribing polygon, since it is determined by $\frac{(n-1)(n+2)}{2}$ arbitrary points.

EXAMPLES.

1. If a quartic U_0 have a double factor, prove geometrically that this factor is a double factor of H_x , and show that two of the quadratic factors of G_x have real roots when the roots of U_0 are all real or all imaginary, also that only one factor has real roots when two roots of U_0 are real and two imaginary.

2. If a quartic have a square factor, prove geometrically that this factor is a quintuple factor of the covariant G_x ; and construct the point on the conic K which corresponds to the remaining root of the equation $G_x = 0$.

3. Prove that the quadratic factors of the sextic covariant of the quartic $\phi(x)$ expressed in terms of the roots may be written in the form

$$\frac{(x - \alpha_1 y)^2}{\phi'(\alpha_1)} + \frac{(x - \alpha_2 y)^2}{\phi'(\alpha_2)}, \text{ \&c.}$$

Let
we have then

$$T_r = x - \alpha_r y + \alpha_r^2 z;$$

$$\frac{T_1}{\phi'(\alpha_1)} + \frac{T_2}{\phi'(\alpha_2)} + \frac{T_3}{\phi'(\alpha_3)} + \frac{T_4}{\phi'(\alpha_4)} = 0;$$

but the sides of the self-conjugate triangle corresponding to the points $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4$ on K are the diagonals of the quadrilateral formed by the tangents T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4 , and the equation of one of the sides is therefore

$$\frac{T_1}{\phi'(\alpha_1)} + \frac{T_2}{\phi'(\alpha_2)} = 0, \text{ or } \frac{T_3}{\phi'(\alpha_3)} + \frac{T_4}{\phi'(\alpha_4)} = 0.$$

Returning now to the binary system of variables, we have the required form.

4. Resolve the quartic as in Art. 186 by finding the tangents to the conic K where U meets it, U and K having been expressed as sums of squares.

5. Determine the condition that $\lambda u + \mu v$ should have two square factors, where u and v are quartics.

Transforming, we have in this case

$$\lambda U + \mu V + \nu K \equiv (ax + \beta y + \gamma z)^2;$$

consequently, every term in the tangential form of $\lambda U + \mu V + \nu K$ must vanish, giving six equations to eliminate $\lambda^2, \mu^2, \nu^2, \mu\nu, \nu\lambda, \lambda\mu$; hence the required condition is determined.

6. If U, V , and W be three binary quartics, prove that four quartics can be found such that

$$\lambda U + \mu V + \nu W \equiv (\alpha x_0^2 + 2\beta x_0 y_0 + \gamma y_0^2)^2.$$

Passing to the ternary variables, we have to prove that four lines can be found such that

$$\lambda U + \mu V + \nu W + \rho K \equiv (\alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z)^2.$$

These lines are the common tangents to two known conics (see Salmon's *Conics*, Ex. 3, Art. 373).

7. Apply the transformation of Art. 212 to prove the theorem of Art. 198.

Let Tschirnhausen's transformation be put under the general form

$$z = \frac{\alpha x^2 + 2\beta x + \gamma}{\alpha' x^2 + 2\beta' x + \gamma'} \quad (1)$$

Make the numerator and denominator of the last fraction homogeneous in x, y ; replace z by $-\lambda$, and transform: (1) becomes then

$$L + \lambda L' = 0,$$

where $L = \alpha x + \beta y + \gamma z, \quad L' = \alpha' x + \beta' y + \gamma' z.$

If x, y, z be eliminated from the equations $L + \lambda L' = 0, U = 0, K = 0$, we shall have the transformed quartic in λ , which, considered geometrically, determines the lines drawn from the point of intersection P of L and L' to the points of intersection A, B, C, D of U and K . Again, if κ be so determined that the conic $U + \kappa K$ pass through the point P , the anharmonic ratio of the lines PA, PB, PC, PD is equal to the anharmonic ratio of the lines TA, AB, AC, AD , where TA is the tangent to $U + \kappa K$ at A ; that is, of the lines

$$t + \kappa t', \quad t + \rho_1 t', \quad t + \rho_2 t', \quad t + \rho_3 t',$$

where t and t' are the tangents to U and K at A . Now, forming the invariants of the quartic whose roots are $\kappa, \rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3$, the theorem follows by Arts. 187 and 207, since the absolute invariant is the same for both quartics.

8. Transform a quartic into one having three roots in common with its reducing cubic.

This is the converse of the preceding example, for as t and t' are the polars of one of the points of intersection of U and K , the transformation there given reduces the quartic to one having for roots ρ_1, ρ_2, ρ_3 , the roots of the reducing cubic. Now returning to the binary system, and remembering that first emanants in the ternary system become, by transformation, second emanants in the binary system, this transformation (where $\frac{\xi}{\eta}$ is a multiple of λ) becomes in the binary system

$$\frac{\xi}{\eta} = \frac{1}{12} \frac{\left(x' \frac{d}{dx} + y' \frac{d}{dy} \right)^2 U_x}{(xy' - x'y)^2},$$

where

$$U_x = (a, b, c, d, e)(x, y)^4 \quad \text{and} \quad U_x = 0.$$

Expanding, and replacing $\frac{x'}{y'}$ by ρ , we have

$$\frac{\xi}{\eta} = \frac{(a\rho^2 + 2b\rho + c)x^2 + 2(b\rho^2 + 2c\rho + d)xy + (c\rho^2 + 2d\rho + e)y^2}{(x - \rho y)^2}.$$

Again, since the numerator of this fraction vanishes when $x = \rho y$ as $U_\rho = 0$, we have, on dividing the numerator and denominator by $x - \rho y$, one of the linear transformations which reduces the quartic to the form

$$\kappa\eta(\xi^3 - I\xi\eta^2 - 2J\eta^3),$$

the last factor of which is immediately transformable to the reducing cubic.

9. Let three points a, b, c be taken on the conic K given by the equations

$$\rho x = \phi^2, \quad \rho y = 2\phi, \quad \rho z = 1,$$

the values of ϕ at these points being α, β, γ , the roots of a cubic U ; prove the following constructions for determining the points on the conic corresponding to the roots of the cubic covariant G_x and the Hessian H_x :—

1°. Let tangents be drawn to the conic K at the points a, b, c , forming a triangle ABC ; the lines Aa, Bb, Cc meet the conic at points a', b', c' , corresponding to the roots of G_x .

2°. The four triangles $abc, a'b'c', ABC, A'B'C'$ are homologous, and their axis of homology meets the conic K at the points corresponding to the roots of H_x .

3°. From the foregoing constructions, prove that U_x and G_x have the same Hessian H_x , and that the roots of H_x are imaginary when the roots of U_x are real.—*Dublin Exam. Papers, Bishop Law's Prize, 1879.*

Let the tangents at the points a, β, γ on the fixed conic K be T_a, T_β, T_γ ; we have then

$$\rho T_a = (\phi - \alpha)^2, \quad \rho T_\beta = (\phi - \beta)^2, \quad \rho T_\gamma = (\phi - \gamma)^2;$$

whence, eliminating ϕ , the equation of K is

$$(\beta - \gamma)\sqrt{T_a} + (\gamma - \alpha)\sqrt{T_\beta} + (\alpha - \beta)\sqrt{T_\gamma} = 0.$$

Now the equations of the lines Aa, Bb, Cc are

$$(\gamma - \alpha)^2 T_\beta - (\alpha - \beta)^2 T_\gamma = 0, \text{ \&c., \&c.,}$$

and the points where Aa meets the conic K are given by the equation

$$(\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\phi - \beta)^2 = (\alpha - \beta)^2 (\phi - \gamma)^2.$$

$$\text{Solving,} \quad \phi = \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad (\beta + \gamma - 2\alpha)\phi = 2\beta\gamma - \gamma\alpha - \alpha\beta,$$

the second value of ϕ being the root of G_x corresponding harmonically to α .

Again, the polar of the point of intersection of Aa, Bb, Cc , is the axis of homology in 2°, and its equation is

$$(\beta - \gamma)^2 T_a + (\gamma - \alpha)^2 T_\beta + (\alpha - \beta)^2 T_\gamma = 0,$$

which line meets K at the points determined by the equation

$$(\beta - \gamma)^2 (\phi - \alpha)^2 + (\gamma - \alpha)^2 (\phi - \beta)^2 + (\alpha - \beta)^2 (\phi - \gamma)^2 = 0,$$

and this is the equation of the Hessian of U .

10. Resolve the skew invariant of the quadratic and cubic into three factors, in terms of the roots, and give its geometrical interpretation.

The skew invariant is expressed in the form

$$V_D^3 (U_x G_x). \quad (\text{Art. 191.})$$

Now combining the factors of U_x and G_x which correspond harmonically, $U_x G_x$ can be expressed as the product of three quadratics L, M, N , where

$$L = (\beta + \gamma - 2\alpha) x^2 - 2(\beta\gamma - \alpha^2) xy + \alpha(2\beta\gamma - \gamma\alpha - \alpha\beta) y^2,$$

with similar values for M and N .

$$\text{Again,} \quad V_D^3 (LMN) = k V_D L \cdot V_D M \cdot V_D N,$$

where k is a numerical multiplier.

This operation is more easily performed by employing the ternary system of variables; in that case, if

$$V_x = x^2 - (\mu + \nu) xy + \mu\nu y^2,$$

$$V_D \text{ transformed is} \quad \mu\nu D_x + (\mu + \nu) D_y + D_z = \Upsilon,$$

$$\text{and} \quad \Upsilon^3 (L'M'N') = 6\Upsilon L' \cdot \Upsilon M' \cdot \Upsilon N',$$

L' being L transformed, &c.

Whence

$$\Upsilon (L') = \begin{vmatrix} \alpha^2, & 2\alpha, & 1 \\ \mu\nu, & \mu + \nu, & 1 \\ \beta\gamma, & \beta + \gamma, & 1 \end{vmatrix},$$

which vanishes when α determines a focus of the involution of the points μ, ν and β, γ ; or when V_x and L determine four harmonic points on a line; or again when one of the lines Aa, Bb, Cc , in question 9, and the line corresponding to V_x , are conjugate with regard to the fixed conic K ; the skew invariant also vanishing in these cases.

V_D when transformed would not become Υ unless

$$\Pi (L'M'N') = 0;$$

but this is easily seen to be the case, for if the conic K be put under the form

$$\sqrt{X} + \sqrt{Y} + \sqrt{Z}, \quad X = (\beta - \gamma)^2 T_a, \text{ \&c., \&c.,}$$

then

$$\Pi = \left(\frac{d^2}{dYdZ} + \frac{d^2}{dZdX} + \frac{d^2}{dXdY} \right).$$

Also

$$L'M'N' = (Y - Z)(Z - X)(X - Y).$$

11. Two triads of points are taken on the conic K determined by the roots of two cubics U and V ; if triangles are formed by the tangents to K at these points, prove that the conic circumscribing these two triangles touches the conic K when the combinant Q of the two cubics vanishes, and that their combinant P vanishes when the circumscribing conic meets the conic K in four equianharmonic points.

12. Determine the condition that any two quadratic factors, viz.,

$$(x - \alpha y)(x - \beta y), \quad (x - \gamma y)(x - \delta y)$$

of a quartic U_0 should form with a given quadratic $\lambda x^2 + 2\mu xy + \nu y^2$ a system in involution.

Transforming, the three corresponding lines must meet in a point, which point is one of the vertices of the common self-conjugate triangle of the conics U and K . The tangential equation of these points is $J(\Sigma, \Sigma', \Phi) = 0$, which is therefore the required condition, the tangential form of $\rho U + K$ being $\rho^2 \Sigma + \rho \Phi + \Sigma'$ (Art. 217).

This condition may also be put under the form

$$\left(\lambda \frac{d^2}{dy^2} - 2\mu \frac{d^2}{dx dy} + \nu \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \right)^3 G_x = 0,$$

as we proceed to show.

If
$$\Upsilon = \lambda \frac{d^2}{dy_0^2} - 2\mu \frac{d^2}{dx_0 dy_0} + \nu \frac{d^2}{dx_0^2},$$

and $G_x \equiv uvw$ when resolved into its quadratic factors, we have

$$\Upsilon^3 G_x = 6\Upsilon u \cdot \Upsilon v \cdot \Upsilon w,$$

for transforming to the ternary variables,

$$h\Upsilon = \lambda \frac{d}{dz} - 2\mu \frac{d}{dy} + \nu \frac{d}{dx},$$

when applied to a function $\phi(x, y, z)$ such that $\Pi\phi \equiv 0$. Now u, v, w become three lines X, Y, Z , which form a self-conjugate triangle with reference to K , and $\Pi XYZ = 0$ in the case of any three lines which are mutually conjugate; whence

$$\Upsilon^3 XYZ \text{ reduces to } \Upsilon X \cdot \Upsilon Y \cdot \Upsilon Z,$$

since

$$\Upsilon^2 X = 0, \quad \Upsilon^2 Y = 0, \quad \Upsilon^2 Z = 0,$$

and $\Upsilon X = 0$ is the condition that two quadratic factors of U_0 should form with $\lambda x^2 + 2\mu xy + \nu y^2$ a system in involution.

13. Prove that the quartics

$$(a_1x^2 + 2\beta_1xy + \gamma_1y^2)(a_3x^2 + 2\beta_3xy + \gamma_3y^2) - (a_2x^2 + 2\beta_2xy + \gamma_2y^2)^2, \quad (1)$$

$$(a_1x^2 + 2a_2xy + a_3y^2)(\gamma_1x^2 + 2\gamma_2xy + \gamma_3y^2) - (\beta_1x^2 + 2\beta_2xy + \beta_3y^2)^2, \quad (2)$$

have the same invariants.

Transforming (2) to the ternary system, we have the conic

$$(a_1x + a_2y + a_3z)(\gamma_1x + \gamma_2y + \gamma_3z) - (\beta_1x + \beta_2y + \beta_3z)^2,$$

which, for shortness, we write as $LN - M^2$, where

$$L \equiv a_1x + a_2y + a_3z, \quad M \equiv \beta_1x + \beta_2y + \beta_3z, \quad N \equiv \gamma_1x + \gamma_2y + \gamma_3z. \quad (3)$$

Now, when the discriminant of

$$LN - M^2 + \lambda(y^2 - 4zx)$$

is formed, the invariants of the quartic (2) are the functions $-3H$ and G of this cubic in λ (or the last two coefficients when the second term is removed). This discriminant may be obtained as the resultant of the three equations

$$\left. \begin{aligned} Na_1 - 2M\beta_1 + L\gamma_1 - 4\lambda z &= 0, \\ Na_2 - 2M\beta_2 + L\gamma_2 + 2\lambda y &= 0, \\ Na_3 - 2M\beta_3 + L\gamma_3 - 4\lambda x &= 0, \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4)$$

when x, y, z are eliminated; or by eliminating the six quantities x, y, z, L, M, N by means of the three additional equations (3), the resultant is obtained in the form

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & \gamma_1 & 0 & 0 & -4\lambda \\ \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & \gamma_2 & 0 & 2\lambda & 0 \\ \alpha_3 & \beta_3 & \gamma_3 & -4\lambda & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 & \alpha_3 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \beta_1 & \beta_2 & \beta_3 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \gamma_1 & \gamma_2 & \gamma_3 \end{vmatrix} = \Delta(\lambda).$$

If we had operated similarly on the quartic (1), we should have obtained the same resultant $\Delta(\lambda)$, the form the determinant takes in this case being obtained by dividing the first three rows of $\Delta(\lambda)$ by -4λ , and multiplying the first three columns by -4λ . Whence it follows that the invariants are the same in both cases.

To expand $\Delta(\lambda)$ we replace L, M, N by their values in equations (4), and then eliminate x, y, z , thus obtaining

$$\begin{vmatrix} I_{11} & I_{12} & I_{13} - 2\lambda \\ I_{12} & I_{22} + \lambda & I_{23} \\ I_{13} - 2\lambda & I_{23} & I_{33} \end{vmatrix}, \text{ where } 2I_{pq} = \alpha_p\gamma_q + \alpha_q\gamma_p - 2\beta_p\beta_q.$$

This determinant becomes when expanded

$$4\lambda^3 + 4(I_{22} - I_{13})\lambda^2 - \{I_{11}I_{33} - I_{13}^2 + 4(I_{13}I_{22} - I_{12}I_{23})\}\lambda - \begin{vmatrix} I_{11} & I_{12} & I_{13} \\ I_{12} & I_{22} & I_{23} \\ I_{13} & I_{23} & I_{33} \end{vmatrix},$$

every coefficient of which is the same for both quartics, as may be verified directly. See Zeuthen's solution, *Proceedings of the London Mathematical Society*, vol. x., p. 196.

14. Determine the condition that three quadratics should by linear transformation be simultaneously reducible to the forms

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2}, \quad \frac{d^2\phi}{dxdy}, \quad \frac{d^2\phi}{dy^2}.$$

$$\text{Ans. } I_{11}I_{33} - 4I_{12}I_{23} + I_{22}^2 + 2I_{22}I_{31} = 0.$$

15. Prove that the condition in Ex. 14 is the same for the following two sets of quadratics:—

$$\begin{aligned} & \alpha_1x^2 + 2\beta_1xy + \gamma_1y^2, \quad \alpha_2x^2 + 2\beta_2xy + \gamma_2y^2, \quad \alpha_3x^2 + 2\beta_3xy + \gamma_3y^2, \\ \text{and} \quad & \alpha_1x^2 + 2\alpha_2xy + \alpha_3y^2, \quad \beta_1x^2 + 2\beta_2xy + \beta_3y^2, \quad \gamma_1x^2 + 2\gamma_2xy + \gamma_3y^2. \end{aligned}$$

The condition in Ex. 14 can be put under the form

$$(I_{22} - I_{13})^2 + I_{11}I_{33} - I_{13}^2 + 4(I_{13}I_{22} - I_{12}I_{23}),$$

which is at once expressible by the coefficients of $\Delta(\lambda)$ in Ex. 13.

The geometrical interpretation of this condition is that a triangle can be inscribed in the harmonic conic of U and K and circumscribed to K .

For, replacing L, M, N in Ex. 13 by U_1, U_2, U_3 , as supposed in Ex. 14, where

$$U = (a, c, e, d, c, b)(x, y, z)^2,$$

$$LN - M^2 = (I_{11}, I_{22}, I_{33}, I_{23}, I_{31}, I_{12})(x, y, z)^2$$

becomes the harmonic conic F of U and K (Art. 214); also, if the discriminant of $\lambda K + F$ or $\Delta(\lambda)$ be written in the usual form

$$\Delta\lambda^3 + \Theta\lambda^2 + \Theta_1\lambda + \Delta_1,$$

the condition in Ex. 14 may be written thus—

$$\Theta^2 - 4\Delta\Theta_1 = 0,$$

which is the well-known invariant condition that a triangle can be inscribed in one conic and circumscribed to another. (See Salmon's *Conic Sections*, Art. 376.)

Conversely, since the invariant Θ' of U and K vanishes, we may reduce U and K to the forms

$$AX^2 + BY^2 + CZ^2, \quad \sqrt{X} + \sqrt{Y} + \sqrt{Z};$$

and consequently, $F = BCYZ + CAZX + ABXY$,

and

$$\Theta^2 - 4\Delta\Theta_1 = 0.$$

Conics connected by the invariant relation $\Theta = 0$ are said to be “apolar.”

16. If U and V be the ternary forms of two biquadratics u and v , and F their harmonic conic, prove that $\Pi(F) = 0$ is the condition that u and v should be two first emanants of a quintic.

CHAPTER XX.

THEORY OF SUBSTITUTIONS AND GROUPS.

SECTION I.—SUBSTITUTIONS IN GENERAL.

220. **Definitions—Notation.**—If n symbols $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$ be given, and if each symbol be replaced by some one or other from the same set, so that the result is a new arrangement of the same n symbols, the operation of passing from the first to the second arrangement is called a *substitution*. The symbols x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are to be regarded as entirely independent quantities, and are referred to as the *variables*, or the *elements* affected by the substitution.

If the operation be denoted by S , a substitution S can be represented as follows:—

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \dots & x_n \\ x_a & x_\beta & x_\gamma & \dots & x_\lambda \end{pmatrix},$$

where the two horizontal lines contain the same set of n letters, and the operation consists in replacing any letter in the upper line by that which stands under it in the lower line. The operation may be supposed to be applied to a function $\phi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ of the variables, in which case the resulting function $S\phi$ will be obtained by replacing x_1 by x_a wherever it occurs in ϕ , x_2 by x_β , and so on. In the case of any letter which is not displaced by the substitution under consideration, the two symbols in the same vertical line will be identical. Since the suffixes of x admit of only $1.2.3 \dots n = N$ permutations, this is the total possible number of distinct substitutions. In this number is included that arrangement in which the order of the suffixes is the same in both horizontal lines, viz., that in which no letter

is displaced by the operation. Such a substitution, which affects no element, is called the *identical substitution*, or the *substitution unity*, and may be denoted by $S = 1$.

It will usually be found convenient in practice to denote the symbols operated on by single letters a, b, c, \dots or by the numbers $1, 2, 3, \dots$ simply, the symbol x being omitted.

221. Circular Substitutions.—The notation above explained admits of simplification. Consider, for example, the substitution

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f \\ b & c & d & e & f & a \end{pmatrix},$$

in which each symbol is replaced by that which follows it in the first line, the last letter f being replaced by the first. Such is called a *circular substitution*, and is denoted simply by the letters of the first line enclosed in a bracket, thus—

$$S = (a \ b \ c \ d \ e \ f).$$

It is clear that S can be written in several different ways, and that any of the letters involved may stand first, provided the cyclical order be preserved: thus

$$S = (b c d e f a) = (c d e f a b) = (d e f a b c) = (e f a b c d) = (f a b c d e).$$

Now it is easy to see that *every substitution can be resolved into one or more circular substitutions*. For, in effecting any substitution S , if a letter a in the upper line be found replaced by b , and b in its turn by c , and so on; in continuing this process, we come necessarily to a letter (h , say) which is found replaced by a . The result of the operation so far is the circular substitution $(a b c \dots h)$. If the letters be not all exhausted by this process, we select a letter from those which remain, and form in a similar manner a new circular substitution; and so on, as long as any new symbols remain.

If we denote by $C_1, C_2, \dots C_j$ the different substitutions obtained in this way, we may write

$$S = C_1 C_2 C_3 \dots C_j,$$

and S may be said to be resolved into its circular factors. These

factors are called the *cycles* of S . Cycles which contain two letters only are called *transpositions*. As an example, we take the substitution

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 8 & 6 & 1 & 2 & 7 & 5 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Starting with the symbol 1 in the upper line we obtain immediately the cycle (183), and proceeding in a similar manner with 2 we obtain the cycle (26574); hence

$$S = (183)(26574).$$

It is clear that the order in which the operations are conducted is indifferent, since no cycle affects any of the elements contained in any other, and therefore the order in which the factors of S are written is indifferent.

If all the elements are involved in the first operation alone, the substitution is itself circular, e.g.,

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 6 & 7 & 5 & 2 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = (1374526).$$

If the position of any element is unaltered by a substitution, this element may be enclosed in brackets by itself when the substitution is expressed as a product of cycles, or it may be omitted altogether, e.g.,

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 4 & 1 & 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = (134)(26)(5) = (134)(26).$$

Here (5) being the identical substitution = 1 may be replaced by unity. Although an element constituting a cycle by itself can be replaced by unity, it is often necessary to retain it in order to show that this element was amongst those which were subject to the operation.

A circular substitution S can be repeated any number of times on the same elements, and the successive operations denoted by S^2 , S^3 , &c. We have, for example,

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f \\ b & c & d & e & f & a \end{pmatrix}, \quad S^2 = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f \\ c & d & e & f & a & b \end{pmatrix}, \quad S^3 = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f \\ d & e & f & a & b & c \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proceeding, we find $S^6 = 1$. If, in general, ρ is the lowest integer such that $S^\rho = 1$, the substitution S is said to be of the order ρ ; it is clear, therefore, that the order of a circular substitution is equal to the number of elements it displaces.

For two elements α, β we have $(\alpha\beta) = (\beta\alpha)$, and $(\alpha\beta)^2 = 1$.

For three elements α, β, γ , we have $(\alpha\beta\gamma)^2 = (\alpha\gamma\beta)$; $(\alpha\beta\gamma)^3 = 1$.

222. Products and Powers of Substitutions.—If two or more substitutions $S_1, S_2, \dots S_j$ be operated in succession on a given set of elements, the result is a new arrangement which might have been arrived at by one single substitution S . This substitution may be called the *product* of the former set, and we may write $S = S_1 S_2 \dots S_j$, the component factors being applied in the order S_1, S_2, \dots , viz., *from left to right*. When a substitution is resolved into its component *cycles*, as in the preceding Article, we saw that the order of the factors is indifferent, no element being common to any two of the cycles. But, in general, in a product of substitutions where the same element may occur in two or more of the factors S_1, S_2, \dots , it is most important to observe that the commutative law of algebraic multiplication does not hold good, and that the order of the factors must be preserved. With three elements, for example, the student will easily verify that the product (12)(13) is a different substitution from the product (13)(12). While the commutative law of algebra fails, the associative law holds good, viz., $S_1 S_2 \cdot S_3 = S_1 \cdot S_2 S_3$; for if S_1 changes any element a into b , and S_2 changes b into c , which again is changed into d by means of S_3 , the substitution of d for a is the final result whether this be supposed effected by first changing a into c (by means of $S_1 S_2$), and then c into d , or first changing a into b , and then b into d (by means of $S_2 S_3$).

The result of operating the same substitution S any number of times, p , in succession may be represented by S^p ; and we have clearly the equation $S^p S^q = S^{p+q} = S^q S^p$. The *inverse* of a given substitution S is one which reverses the order of procedure in S ,

and is denoted by the symbol S^{-1} . Thus, if

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad S^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 & \dots & b_n \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_n \end{pmatrix},$$

we have clearly $SS^{-1} = S^{-1}S = 1$.

Since the total number of possible substitutions is limited, some repetition of S must reproduce the original arrangement of the elements. If ρ is the lowest integer such that $S^\rho = 1$, S is said to be of the order ρ , and the series of substitutions is limited as follows:—

$$1, S, S^2, S^3, \dots S^{\rho-1}.$$

The extension of this mode of expression to negative exponents may be obtained by writing $S^{-\nu}$ in the form $S^{k\rho-\nu}$, where ρ is the order of S , and consequently $S^{k\rho} = 1$. We have then $S^\nu S^{-\nu} = S^\nu S^{k\rho-\nu} = S^{k\rho} = 1$, and the substitutions S^ν and $S^{-\nu}$ cancel one another.

Any circular substitution can be represented as a product of transpositions, for it is clear that the operation $(abcdef)$ can be conducted by first interchanging a and b , then interchanging a and c , then a and d , and so on. We may write, therefore,

$$(abcdef) = (ab)(ac)(ad)(ae)(af),$$

from which it appears that any cycle can be resolved into a product of transpositions, in number one less than the number of elements contained in the cycle. The order of the factors in any such product is important, these factors not being commutable amongst one another. It follows immediately that *every substitution can be expressed as a product of transpositions*, for each of its cycles can be so expressed.

If a substitution S affecting n elements contains k cycles, it can be easily inferred that S can be expressed as a product of $n - k$ transpositions. It should be observed, however, that the same substitution can be expressed in a great variety of ways as a product of transpositions. It will appear in the sequel that, however variously expressed, the number of transpositions in any given substitution preserves the same *parity*; that is to say, if once even, it is always even; if once odd, always odd.

EXAMPLES.

1. Resolve into its cycles

$$S \equiv \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_5 & a_6 & a_7 & a_8 & a_9 & a_{10} & a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & a_{15} \\ a_{11} & a_7 & a_6 & a_{12} & a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & a_8 & a_9 & a_{10} & a_8 & a_{14} & a_{13} & a_{15} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Ans. } S \equiv (a_1 a_{11} a_{10} a_9 a_8 a_2 a_7 a_3 a_5) (a_4 a_{12} a_8) (a_{13} a_{14}) (a_{15}),$$

The appearance of the factor $(a_{15}) \equiv 1$ in the result shows that this element was amongst those subject to the operation.

2. Express as a product of transpositions

$$S \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 0 \\ 3 & 8 & 6 & 9 & 2 & 4 & 0 & 5 & 1 & 7 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\text{Ans. } S \equiv (13)(16)(14)(19)(28)(25)(70).$$

3. If a circular substitution C be multiplied by a transposition T , one of whose elements is contained in C and the other not, the resulting substitution CT is circular.

Taking a_1 as the common element, we may write

$$C \equiv (a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_i), \quad T \equiv (a_1 a_j).$$

The effect of C is to replace the arrangement $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_i, a_j$ by $a_2, a_3, \dots, a_i, a_1, a_j$, and of T to interchange a_1 and a_j in the latter. We have then

$$CT \equiv \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_{i-1} & a_i & a_j \\ a_2 & a_3 & \dots & a_i & a_j & a_1 \end{pmatrix} \equiv (a_1 a_2 \dots a_i a_j).$$

4. If a circular substitution C be multiplied by a transposition T , both of whose elements are contained in C , the resulting substitution CT is the product of two cycles having no common element.

We may take

$$C \equiv (a_1 a_2 \dots a_i b_1 b_2 \dots b_j), \quad T \equiv (a_1 b_1).$$

Proceeding as in the previous example, we readily find

$$CT \equiv (a_1 a_2 \dots a_i) (b_1 b_2 \dots b_j).$$

5. If a substitution S be multiplied by a transposition T , whose elements are contained one in each of two different cycles C, C' , of S , the product $CC'T$ is one unbroken cycle of all the elements in C and C' .

This follows at once from the last example by multiplying both sides of the resulting equation into T , since $T^2 = 1$.

6. If any substitution S is the product of r transpositions, and if it be multiplied by a transposition T , the product ST will consist either of $r + 1$ or $r - 1$ transpositions.

If S affects n elements, and contains k cycles, we have as stated above $r = n - k$. If T introduces two new elements, we have one additional transposition, hence $r + 1$ in all. There are three cases remaining; according as (1) T introduces one new element only, or (2) two elements already contained in the same cycle of S , or (3) two already contained in different cycles of S . These cases are discussed in the three preceding examples; and it is readily inferred that the number of transpositions in ST is always $r + 1$, except when both elements of T occur in the same cycle of S , in which case n is unaltered, and k becomes $k + 1$; r therefore becomes

$$n - (k + 1) = n - k - 1 = r - 1.$$

It appears from this example, that however S be expressed as a product of transpositions, the effect of multiplication by a single additional transposition is to change its parity, viz., from odd to even, or even to odd.

7. The order of a substitution S is equal to the least common multiple of the orders of its cycles.

Let

$$S = C_1 C_2 C_3 \dots C_j,$$

and μ be any common multiple of the orders of C_1, C_2, \dots . Since

$$S^\mu = C_1^\mu C_2^\mu \dots C_j^\mu, \quad \text{and} \quad C_1^\mu = C_2^\mu = \dots C_j^\mu = 1,$$

we have $S^\mu = 1$; and if ρ be the least value of μ , $S^\rho = 1$; whence ρ is the order of S .

Hence we infer that if the cycles C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots are of the same order, this order is also the order of S . Such substitutions are called *regular*, the same number of letters occurring in each cycle.

8. If a circular substitution S contains p letters, and if μ is prime to p , then S^μ is itself circular.

9. If a circular substitution S contains pq letters, then S^p is a regular substitution consisting of p cycles of q letters each. If, for example,

$$S = (123456), \quad S^2 = (135)(246), \quad S^3 = (14)(25)(36).$$

10. Every regular substitution is a power of a circular substitution.

Take S as in example 7, with the factors

$$C_1 = (a_1 b_1 c_1 \dots l_1), \quad C_2 = (a_2 b_2 c_2 \dots l_2) \quad \dots \quad C_j = (a_j b_j c_j \dots l_j),$$

i.e., such that the same number of letters are involved in each cycle. If now we write down the circular substitution

$$C = (a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_j b_1 b_2 b_3 \dots b_j \dots \dots l_1 l_2 l_3 \dots l_j),$$

whose first j letters are the initial letters of the j cycles, the next set the second letters of the successive cycles, and so on, it is easily verified that the j^{th} power of C breaks up into the product of the j successive cycles $C_1, C_2, \dots C_j$; hence

$$S = C^j.$$

11. Express the regular substitution

$$S = (1 \ 3 \ 5 \ 12)(2 \ 7 \ 6 \ 11)(4 \ 8 \ 10 \ 9)$$

as a power of a circular substitution.

$$\text{Ans. } S = (1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3 \ 7 \ 8 \ 5 \ 6 \ 10 \ 12 \ 11 \ 9)^3.$$

12. Every transposition of the elements $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots x_n$ can be expressed by transpositions from the following series of $n - 1$, viz. :—

$$(x_1x_2), (x_1x_3), (x_1x_4), \dots (x_1x_{n-1}), (x_1x_n).$$

For it can be easily verified that, if x_α, x_β are any two elements,

$$(x_\alpha x_\beta) = (x_1x_\alpha)(x_1x_\beta)(x_1x_\alpha).$$

13. Every substitution which can be resolved into an even number of transpositions can be expressed by circular substitutions of the third order.

The given substitution is expressible by products either of the type $(\alpha\beta)(\alpha\gamma)$ or $(\alpha\beta)(\gamma\delta)$; we have $(\alpha\beta)(\alpha\gamma) = (\alpha\beta\gamma)$, and $(\alpha\beta)(\gamma\delta) = (\alpha\beta\gamma)(\alpha\delta\gamma)$, since

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha\beta\gamma)(\alpha\delta\gamma) &= (\alpha\beta\gamma)(\gamma\alpha\delta) \\ &= (\alpha\beta)(\alpha\gamma)(\gamma\alpha)(\gamma\delta) \\ &= (\alpha\beta)(\alpha\gamma)^2(\gamma\delta), \quad \text{and} \quad (\alpha\gamma)^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

14. Show that any circular substitution of three of the elements $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$ can be expressed by means of the $n - 2$ circular substitutions

$$(x_1x_2x_3), (x_1x_2x_4), \dots (x_1x_2x_{n-1}), (x_1x_2x_n).$$

Retaining for brevity the suffixes only, we proceed to express $(\alpha\beta\gamma)$ in terms of $(\lambda\mu\alpha)$, $(\lambda\mu\beta)$, and $(\lambda\mu\gamma)$.

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha\beta\gamma) &= (\alpha\beta)(\alpha\gamma) \\ &= (\alpha\beta)(\alpha\lambda)(\alpha\lambda)(\alpha\gamma), \quad \text{since} \quad (\alpha\lambda)^2 = 1, \\ &= (\alpha\beta\lambda)(\alpha\lambda\gamma) \\ &= (\lambda\alpha\beta)(\lambda\gamma\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

Now making use of this equation to bring a new element μ in a similar manner into each of the cycles on the right-hand side, we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\alpha\beta\gamma) &= (\mu\lambda\alpha)(\mu\beta\lambda)(\mu\lambda\gamma)(\mu\alpha\lambda) \\ &= (\lambda\mu\alpha)^2(\lambda\mu\beta)(\lambda\mu\gamma)^2(\lambda\mu\alpha), \quad \text{the required expression.} \end{aligned}$$

The following mode of expression can also be easily verified:—

$$(\alpha\beta\gamma) \equiv (\lambda\mu\alpha)(\lambda\mu\gamma)(\lambda\mu\beta)(\lambda\mu\alpha)(\lambda\mu\gamma).$$

223. Similar Substitutions.—Two substitutions which contain the same number of cycles, and the same number of elements in corresponding cycles are said to be *similar*.

Two substitutions S, T are said to be *commutative* when $ST = TS$.

The operation represented by the substitution $T^{-1}ST$ is called the *transformation* of S by T , and the resulting substitution the *conjugate* of S with respect to T .

Any substitution is similar to its conjugate with respect to any

other substitution. To prove this, let S be transformed by the substitution

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & \dots & l & \dots \\ a' & b' & c' & \dots & l' & \dots \end{pmatrix},$$

and let $(abc \dots l)$ be one of the cycles of S . The effect of the operation T^{-1} is to replace a' by a , which by the operation of S is replaced by b , which again by the operation T is replaced by b' . The substitution $T^{-1}ST$ therefore replaces a' by b' , b' by c' , $\dots l'$ by a' ; and to the cycle $(abc \dots l)$ in S corresponds the cycle $(a'b'c' \dots l')$ in its conjugate.

The transformation of S by T is completed by replacing in each cycle of S every letter by that which stands under it in the substitution T . The resulting substitution is therefore similar to S . Reciprocally, it is clear that, if two substitutions S_1 and S_2 are similar, a substitution T can be found which transforms one into the other.

The products ST and TS , which are in general different, are always *similar*, since $ST = T^{-1}(TS)T$.

The conjugate of the product ST with respect to a third substitution U is equal to the product of the conjugates of its factors, for we have $U^{-1}(ST)U = U^{-1}SUU^{-1}TU$.

If two substitutions S , T are commutative, their conjugates with respect to U are commutative, for if $ST = TS$, we have

$$U^{-1}SUU^{-1}TU = U^{-1}TUU^{-1}SU.$$

SECTION II.—MULTIPLE-VALUED FUNCTIONS AND GROUPS.

224. Definition of Group. Symmetric Group.—

According to the number of values a function of $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$ assumes under the operation of the N possible substitutions, it is said to be one-valued, two-valued, $\dots p$ -valued. A symmetric function of these elements, being unaltered by any transposition (Art. 27), and therefore by any product of transpositions, is a one-valued function. If a function be not symmetric, it has two or more values which may be derived

from one supposed given by the process of substitution. Consider, for example, the two rational functions of three elements

$$\Phi_1 = x_1^2 x_2 + x_2^2 x_3 + x_3^2 x_1, \quad \sqrt{\Delta} = (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)(x_2 - x_3).$$

Each of these is two-valued. Of the six possible substitutions, viz.,

$$1, (123), (132), (12), (13), (23),$$

the first three leave Φ_1 unaltered, while by each of the last three it is changed into its second value $x_2^2 x_1 + x_3^2 x_2 + x_1^2 x_3 = \Phi_2$. In the same way $\sqrt{\Delta}$ also is unaltered by the first three, and is changed by the last three into its second value $-\sqrt{\Delta}$. As an example in the case of four elements, consider the function

$$\phi_1 = x_1 x_2 + x_3 x_4.$$

There are, in addition to ϕ_1 , two other values, viz.,

$$\phi_2 = x_1 x_3 + x_2 x_4 \quad \text{and} \quad \phi_3 = x_1 x_4 + x_2 x_3;$$

the function is therefore three-valued.

It can be easily verified that ϕ_1 is unaltered by the following eight substitutions:—

$$1, (12), (34), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23), (1324), (1423),$$

and that any of the remaining sixteen will change ϕ_1 into one or other of the two remaining values. The substitutions which leave a function unchanged constitute a *group*. It is clear that any combination by multiplication of two or more members of the group will itself be a substitution contained in the group. We give therefore the formal definition of a group as follows:—

A system of distinct substitutions is said to form a group when all powers and products of these substitutions form part of the same system.

The number of substitutions contained in a group is called the *order* of the group.

The number of elements operated on is the *degree* of the group.

The group which leaves a function $\phi(x_1, x_2, \dots x_n)$ unaltered is called the *group belonging to ϕ* , or, briefly, the *group of ϕ* .

The total number of N substitutions, of course, constitutes a group. This is called the *symmetric group*, since all its members leave any symmetric function unaltered.

One group may contain all the substitutions of another in addition to others peculiar to itself. In such a case the included group is called a *sub-group* of the former.

The symmetric group contains every other group as a sub-group. Any substitution whatever, with all its distinct powers, make up a group contained as a sub-group in the symmetric group. Next in importance to the symmetric is the alternate group, which we will now define.

225. Alternate Group.—Let us consider in the case of n elements the rational function

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi (x_i - x_j) = & (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)(x_1 - x_4) \dots (x_1 - x_n) \\ & (x_2 - x_3)(x_2 - x_4) \dots (x_2 - x_n) \\ & (x_3 - x_4) \dots (x_3 - x_n) \\ & \dots \dots \dots \\ & (x_{n-1} - x_n), \end{aligned}$$

consisting of the product of all the differences of the elements. The square of Π is the well-known symmetric function, the discriminant Δ ; and therefore Π has two values equal numerically with opposite signs, viz. $\sqrt{\Delta}$ and $-\sqrt{\Delta}$. Such two-valued functions are called *alternating functions*. It is clear that any transposition alters the sign of Π , for consider the transposition $(x_1 x_2)$ in which x_1 and x_2 may be taken for any two of the elements. This alters the sign of the first factor in the upper row, and interchanges the remaining factors of the upper row with the factors of the second row. It does not affect any of the factors in the remaining rows; hence the sign of the product is altered. Any second transposition restores the original sign; hence the effect

of the product of two, or any even number of, transpositions is to leave $\sqrt{\Delta}$ unaltered, and the effect of the product of any odd number is to change $\sqrt{\Delta}$ into its second value $-\sqrt{\Delta}$, or $-\sqrt{\Delta}$ into its second value $\sqrt{\Delta}$.

A substitution can be expressed in many different ways as a product of transpositions, but, however variously expressed, *the number of such factors must be always even or always odd*; for it is clear that the same substitution cannot at the same time change the sign of $\sqrt{\Delta}$ and leave it unchanged. Since the product of two even substitutions is itself an even substitution, it follows that unity, along with all substitutions which are made up of an even number of transpositions, constitute a group, and that $\sqrt{\Delta}$ and $-\sqrt{\Delta}$ are both functions belonging to this group. It is called the *alternate group*: we proceed to investigate its order. Let the alternate group of n elements consist of the following substitutions:—

$$S_1 = 1, \quad S_2, \quad S_3, \quad \dots \dots S_r, \quad (1)$$

and let the remaining substitutions of the symmetric group, all consisting of an odd number of transpositions, and therefore distinct from the former, be

$$S'_1, \quad S'_2, \quad S'_3, \quad \dots \dots S'_t. \quad (2)$$

We select now any transposition T , and form by multiplication the two following series:—

$$S_1T, \quad S_2T, \quad S_3T, \quad \dots \dots S_rT, \quad (3)$$

$$S'_1T, \quad S'_2T, \quad S'_3T, \quad \dots \dots S'_tT. \quad (4)$$

Every substitution in (3) is composed of an odd number of transpositions, and is therefore contained in (2), and every substitution in (4) of an even number, and therefore contained in (1). It follows that $r \leq t$, and also $r \geq t$; hence $r = t$; and since $r + t = N$, we have finally for the order of the alternate group

$$r = \frac{1}{2}N.$$

226. Conjugate values of Multiple-valued Functions and Conjugate Groups. Theorem.—*The order of any group is an exact divisor of N , the quotient being the number of distinct values of the corresponding multiple-valued function.*

To prove this important theorem, we take the group

$$G_1 = [S_1 = 1, \quad S_2, \quad S_3, \quad \dots \quad S_r], \quad (1)$$

whose order is r and degree n , and which contains all those substitutions (and no others) which leave a function $\phi_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ unchanged. Let Σ_2 be a substitution not contained in this group, and one therefore which changes ϕ_1 to another of its values, say ϕ_2 . Multiplying the members of G_1 by Σ_2 , we have the following series of substitutions, all belonging, of course, to the symmetric group:—

$$S_1\Sigma_2, \quad S_2\Sigma_2, \quad S_3\Sigma_2, \quad \dots \quad S_r\Sigma_2. \quad (2)$$

The members of this series have the following properties:— (1) they are all distinct from one another, for the equality $S_\alpha\Sigma_2 = S_\beta\Sigma_2$ would imply $S_\alpha = S_\beta$; (2) they all transform ϕ_1 into ϕ_2 , for the effect of the first factor S_α is to leave ϕ_1 unaltered; and (3) there are no other substitutions in the symmetric group possessing this property, for if T is any substitution changing ϕ_1 to ϕ_2 , the product $T\Sigma_2^{-1}$ leaves ϕ_1 unaltered, and therefore belongs to the group G_1 ; hence $T\Sigma_2^{-1} = S_k$, and therefore $T = S_k\Sigma_2$; that is, T is contained in the series (2) above written. We can form a similar row by means of a substitution Σ_3 which changes ϕ_1 to a third value ϕ_3 . Proceeding in this way till all the values of ϕ , viz. $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots, \phi_\rho$, are exhausted, we have the following table (in which, for symmetry, Σ_1 is written $= 1$):—

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} S_1\Sigma_1, & S_2\Sigma_1, & S_3\Sigma_1, & \dots & S_r\Sigma_1, \\ S_1\Sigma_2, & S_2\Sigma_2, & S_3\Sigma_2, & \dots & S_r\Sigma_2, \\ S_1\Sigma_3, & S_2\Sigma_3, & S_3\Sigma_3, & \dots & S_r\Sigma_3, \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \dots & \cdot \\ S_1\Sigma_\rho, & S_2\Sigma_\rho, & S_3\Sigma_\rho, & \dots & S_r\Sigma_\rho. \end{array}$$

Since there is no remaining value of ϕ , all the substitutions of the symmetric group must be contained in this table; and the substitutions therein contained are all different; for those contained in any row are distinct from one another, as we have seen, and no two substitutions contained in different rows can be equal, since if, for example,

$$S_\alpha \Sigma_3 = S_\beta \Sigma_2, \quad \text{then} \quad \Sigma_3 = S_\alpha^{-1} S_\beta \Sigma_2 = S_\gamma \Sigma_2;$$

that is, Σ_3 would be one of the substitutions contained in the second row, which is contrary to hypothesis. We have then in this table all the N substitutions of the symmetric group written in ρ lines of r each, from which it follows that $r\rho = N$, and the theorem is proved.

On account of the similarity of the different values

$$\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots \phi_k, \dots \phi_\rho$$

of the ρ -valued function ϕ , it is evident, *a priori*, that each of these functions will have a group similar to the group of ϕ_1 . It can be readily shown that the group of any function ϕ_k is obtained by *transforming* (Art. 223) all the substitutions of G by the substitution Σ_k which alters ϕ_1 to ϕ_k . In fact, any substitution $\Sigma_k^{-1} S_\alpha \Sigma_k$ leaves ϕ_k unaltered, for Σ_k^{-1} changes it to ϕ_1 , which is unaltered by S_α , and consequently changed by Σ_k to ϕ_k . The group of ϕ_k is therefore

$$\Sigma_k^{-1} S_1 \Sigma_k, \quad \Sigma_k^{-1} S_2 \Sigma_k, \quad \Sigma_k^{-1} S_3 \Sigma_k, \quad \dots \quad \Sigma_k^{-1} S_r \Sigma_k,$$

where each substitution of G_1 is transformed by Σ_k . This result may be represented briefly by the notation

$$G_k = \Sigma_k^{-1} G_1 \Sigma_k.$$

$G_1, G_2, G_3, \dots G_\rho$ are called *conjugate groups*, and the corresponding functions $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots \phi_\rho$ *conjugate functions*.

It is clear (Art. 223) that *any two conjugate groups consist of similar substitutions*.

What is above proved as to the relation between the orders of G_1 and the symmetric group is true, more generally, of the relation between the orders of G_1 and any wider group G' , in which G_1 is contained as a sub-group; that is to say, *the order of G_1 is an exact divisor of the order r' of any wider group G'* . The proof, which is precisely similar to that given above, consists in arranging the r' substitutions of G' in a number of rows (say, m) of which the first is made up of the r substitutions of G_1 . We readily obtain the following relations: $r\rho = r'\rho' = N$, $r' = mr$, $\rho = m\rho'$, where ρ' is the number of distinct values of any function belonging to G' .

EXAMPLES.

1. Construct, for four elements, the conjugate groups corresponding to the different values of the function $\phi_1 \equiv x_1x_2 + x_3x_4$.

It is easily seen that there are only three distinct values of this function, viz.,

$$\phi_1 \equiv x_1x_2 + x_3x_4, \quad \phi_2 \equiv x_1x_3 + x_2x_4, \quad \phi_3 \equiv x_1x_4 + x_2x_3,$$

and each has therefore a group of order 8.

The group of ϕ_1 consists of the following eight substitutions:—

$$G_1 \equiv [1, (12), (34), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23), (1324), (1423)].$$

If we take any substitution, e.g. (23), which changes ϕ_1 to ϕ_2 , and any other, say (24), which changes ϕ_1 to ϕ_3 , and form the table of the foregoing Article, we obtain all the twenty-four substitutions of the symmetric group as follows:—

1	(12)	(34)	(12)(34)	(13)(24)	(14)(23)	(1324)	(1423)
(23)	(132)	(234)	(1342)	(1243)	(14)	(124)	(143)
(24)	(142)	(243)	(1432)	(13)	(1234)	(134)	(123)

The first row is the group G_1 ; the other rows not constituting groups, but being such that the members of the second (and no others) all convert ϕ_1 into ϕ_2 , and the members of the third (and no others) all convert ϕ_1 into ϕ_3 . The group G_2 corresponding to ϕ_2 is obtained by *transforming* the substitutions of G_1 by (23), and this is done by simply interchanging 2 and 3 in the substitutions of G_1 . In this way we find easily the groups of ϕ_2 and ϕ_3 , as follows:—

$$G_2 \equiv [1, (13), (24), (13)(24), (12)(34), (14)(23), (1234), (1432)].$$

$$G_3 \equiv [1, (14), (23), (14)(23), (13)(24), (12)(34), (1342), (1243)].$$

It will be observed that none of the circular substitutions of the 3rd order are present in any of these groups, and the three groups have certain substitutions common. In fact, the substitution unity must be common to all conjugate groups, and here G_1 , G_2 , G_3 have the three substitutions (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23) common, in addition to unity, these four substitutions forming a common subgroup of the three conjugate groups.

2. Verify that the substitutions of G_1 in the preceding example form a closed group; that is to say, any multiplication of two of its members always reproduces some member of the group.

Representing the substitutions of G_1 in the order of the preceding example by the symbols 1, A , B , C , D , E , F , G , we have the following multiplication table, which the student will easily verify:—

	1	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
$1 = 1$	1	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
$(12) = A$	A	1	C	B	G	F	E	D
$(34) = B$	B	C	1	A	F	G	D	E
$(12)(34) = C$	C	B	A	1	E	D	G	F
$(13)(24) = D$	D	F	G	E	1	C	A	B
$(14)(23) = E$	E	G	F	D	C	1	B	A
$(1324) = F$	F	D	E	G	B	A	C	1
$(1423) = G$	G	E	D	F	A	B	1	C

In effecting the multiplication, the factor from the first column is to be placed at the left-hand side of each symbol of the upper row in turn.

It will be observed that G_1 contains the sub-groups

$$[1, A, B, C], [1, C, D, E], [1, C, F, G],$$

all of order 4, and several also of order 2, e.g. $[1, A]$, $[1, C]$.

3. Construct the alternate group G' for four elements. The substitutions which consist of an even number of transpositions can easily be selected from the twenty-four given in Ex. 1. They are, in fact, the four substitutions 1, (12)(34), (13)(24),

(14)(23), along with the eight circular substitutions of the third order. These we arrange in three rows, as follows:—

$$G' = \begin{cases} 1 & (12)(34) & (13)(24) & (14)(23), \\ (132) & (234) & (124) & (143), \\ (142) & (243) & (134) & (123). \end{cases}$$

To this group belongs the function $\sqrt{\Delta}$. If each substitution be multiplied by any transposition, say (23), which changes $\sqrt{\Delta}$ to $-\sqrt{\Delta}$, the remaining twelve substitutions of the symmetric group are obtained. If each member of G' be transformed by (23), we obtain the group of $-\sqrt{\Delta}$. It is easily verified that this coincides with G' the group of $\sqrt{\Delta}$. For example, (12)(34) becomes (13)(24) by this transformation; (14)(23) is unaltered; (123) and (132) are interchanged; and so on. The two conjugate groups therefore coincide in this case, $\sqrt{\Delta}$ and $-\sqrt{\Delta}$ both belonging to the same group. The same is true for any number of elements (Art. 225).

The arrangement in three rows of the substitutions of G' illustrates what is proved at the conclusion of the foregoing Article. The four substitutions in the first row form a sub-group of G' ; the four in the second row are obtained from these by multiplication (on the right-hand side) by (132), and the last four by multiplication by (142); the order 4 of the sub-group being a divisor of the order of G' . To this group, which we will call H , viz.,

$$H = [1, \quad (12)(34), \quad (13)(24) \quad (14)(23)]$$

belongs the function

$$A(x_1x_2 + x_3x_4) + B(x_1x_3 + x_2x_4) + C(x_1x_4 + x_2x_3),$$

in which A, B, C are any arbitrary constants.

This function has six distinct values for the substitutions of the symmetric group, viz.,

$$\begin{array}{lll} A\phi_1 + B\phi_2 + C\phi_3, & A\phi_2 + B\phi_3 + C\phi_1, & A\phi_3 + B\phi_1 + C\phi_2, \\ A\phi_1 + B\phi_3 + C\phi_2, & A\phi_2 + B\phi_1 + C\phi_3, & A\phi_3 + B\phi_2 + C\phi_1. \end{array}$$

These have all the same group H , the six conjugate groups coinciding in this case; in fact, any transformation of the symmetric group operated upon the substitutions of H will reproduce the same four in some order. Such a group is called an *invariant sub-group* of the symmetric group. The alternate group is also an invariant sub-group.

4. Prove that the group derived from the $n-1$ transpositions (12), (13), ... (1*n*), is identical with the symmetric group.

Every substitution, being expressible by transpositions, can be represented as a product of members of this series (Ex. 12, Art. 222).

5. Prove, for any number of elements, that there is only one group of order $\frac{1}{2}N$, viz., the alternate group.

Let the group of order $\frac{1}{2}N$ be

$$S_1 = 1, \quad S_2, \quad S_3, \quad \dots \quad S_{\frac{1}{2}N}. \quad (1)$$

Multiplying this, first at the left side and afterwards at the right, by any substitution T of the symmetric group not already contained in it, we have the two series

$$T, \quad TS_2, \quad TS_3, \quad \dots \quad TS_{\frac{1}{2}N} \quad (2)$$

$$T, \quad S_2T, \quad S_3T, \quad \dots \quad S_{\frac{1}{2}N}T. \quad (3)$$

Each of these must consist of the $\frac{1}{2}N$ substitutions not contained in (1); hence the two series are identical, and whatever i may be, we have for some value of j the relation

$$TS_i = S_jT, \quad \text{or} \quad S_i = T^{-1}S_jT;$$

from which it is easily inferred that the group (1) contains all substitutions similar to any one contained in it. Hence (1) cannot comprise any single transposition, for if it did it would contain all such, and be consequently identical with the symmetric group (Ex. 4).

If now it can be shown that (1) contains as a substitution any product of a pair of transpositions, it will follow, since it must then contain all such products of pairs, that it is the alternate group. For this purpose, suppose T in the series (2) to be any transposition. The effect of multiplying both (1) and (2) by a second transposition U is to interchange the two series (1) and (2). It is proved therefore that UT must be one of the substitutions of (1).

From this it appears that every two-valued function belongs to the alternate group, since this is the only group whose order satisfies the equation $2r = N$.

6. The alternate group includes all circular substitutions of odd order, and none of even order.

7. Prove that a group which contains all the circular substitutions of the third order is either the alternate or the symmetric group.

Use Ex. 13, Art. 222.

8. Prove that a group which contains all the circular substitutions of the fifth order contains also all of the third order. For

$$(acdeb)(acbed) = (abc).$$

9. The order of a group is a multiple of the order of any one of the substitutions of the group.

10. If n is a prime number, every group of order n is composed of n powers of a circular substitution of order n .

11. If two groups have common substitutions, these themselves form a group, and their number is a common divisor of the orders of both groups.

12. If the members of a group are all transformed by the same substitution, the conjugates thus derived themselves form a group.

Use the relations given at the end of Art. 223.

227. **Formation of Functions of a given Group.**

The Galois Function.—We now take up the problem of the formation of rational integral non-symmetric functions which remain invariable for all the substitutions of a given group. For this purpose it is necessary first to obtain an integral function of the n variables which assumes N distinct values for the N substitutions of the symmetric group. Such a function is the following:—

$$\psi_1 = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3 + \dots + a_nx_n,$$

in which a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are *distinct arbitrary constants*; for it is clear that of the N values of ψ_1 derived by substitution, viz., $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots, \psi_N$, no two can be equal if the variables be assumed unequal.

This function, ψ_1 , is called the *Galois Function*. Suppose, now, the given group to be

$$G = [1, S_2, S_3, \dots, S_r],$$

and let $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots, \psi_r$ be the r distinct values of the Galois function obtained by applying the substitutions of G . A symmetric function of $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_r$ will be unaltered by these substitutions, for the effect of any substitution of G on $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots, \psi_r$ is to reproduce these functions in some order or other; in fact, the series

$$\psi_1, S_2\psi_1, S_3\psi_1, \dots, S_r\psi_1$$

will become, after the operation S_a ,

$$S_a\psi_1, S_2S_a\psi_1, S_3S_a\psi_1, \dots, S_rS_a\psi_1,$$

and $S_a, S_2S_a, S_3S_a, \dots$ are in some order the r distinct substitutions of the group. Any such symmetric function therefore may be used to search for functions of the group G . A function symmetric in $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_r$ may be also symmetric in x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , or may belong to any wider group containing G as a sub-group. If there is no wider group except the symmetric which contains G as a sub-group, we conclude that any

unsymmetric function of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n obtained in this way belongs to the group G . We add a few simple examples to illustrate this mode of finding functions of a given group.

EXAMPLES.

1. Form a function of three variables which shall be unchanged by all the substitutions of the alternate group, viz.,

$$[1, \quad (123), \quad (132)].$$

Operating with these substitutions on the Galois function, we have

$$\psi_1 \equiv a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3,$$

$$\psi_2 \equiv a_1x_2 + a_2x_3 + a_3x_1,$$

$$\psi_3 \equiv a_1x_3 + a_2x_1 + a_3x_2.$$

$\Sigma\psi_1$ and $\Sigma\psi_1^2$ are both symmetric in x_1, x_2, x_3 . But by means either of $\psi_1\psi_2\psi_3$ or $\Sigma\psi_1^3$, we can obtain the unsymmetric functions

$$x_1^2x_2 + x_2^2x_3 + x_3^2x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad x_1^2x_3 + x_2^2x_1 + x_3^2x_2,$$

both of which must belong to the given group. If these functions be called Φ_x and Φ'_x , it is, in fact, easily verified that

$$\Sigma\psi_1^3 \equiv \Sigma a_1^3 \Sigma x_1^3 + 6a_1a_2a_3x_1x_2x_3 + 3(\Phi_x\Phi'_a + \Phi'_x\Phi_a),$$

where $\Phi_a = a_1^2a_2 + a_2^2a_3 + a_3^2a_1, \quad \Phi'_a = a_1^2a_3 + a_2^2a_1 + a_3^2a_2.$

2. Investigate functions of four variables which shall belong to the group

$$H \equiv [1 \quad (12)(34) \quad (13)(24) \quad (14)(23)].$$

Writing down the values of the four Galois functions as follows:—

$$\psi_1 \equiv a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3 + a_4x_4,$$

$$\psi_2 \equiv a_1x_2 + a_2x_1 + a_3x_4 + a_4x_3,$$

$$\psi_3 \equiv a_1x_3 + a_2x_4 + a_3x_1 + a_4x_2,$$

$$\psi_4 \equiv a_1x_4 + a_2x_3 + a_3x_2 + a_4x_1,$$

we find that $\Sigma\psi_1$ is symmetric in x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 , but that $\Sigma\psi_1^2$ is not so. From the latter we readily obtain the function $A\phi_1 + B\phi_2 + C\phi_3$ of Ex. 3, Art. 226, ϕ_1, ϕ_2, ϕ_3 representing the same functions of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 , as in Ex. 1 of the Article referred to. We have, in fact,

$$\Sigma\psi_1^2 \equiv \Sigma a_1^2 \Sigma x_1^2 + 4(a_1a_2 + a_3a_4)\phi_1 + 4(a_1a_3 + a_2a_4)\phi_2 + 4(a_1a_4 + a_2a_3)\phi_3.$$

The unsymmetric functions occurring here, viz. ϕ_1, ϕ_2, ϕ_3 belong respectively to the wider groups G_1, G_2, G_3 , of order eight. The sum of these with arbitrary coefficients belongs to the given group H , and is a six-valued function.

3. Investigate functions of four variables for the group

$$G_1 \equiv [1, (12), (34), (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23), (1324), (1423)].$$

Taking, along with the four values of ψ in the preceding example, the additional four

$$\psi_5 \equiv \alpha_1 x_2 + \alpha_2 x_1 + \alpha_3 x_3 + \alpha_4 x_4,$$

$$\psi_6 \equiv \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_4 + \alpha_4 x_3,$$

$$\psi_7 \equiv \alpha_1 x_3 + \alpha_2 x_4 + \alpha_3 x_2 + \alpha_4 x_1,$$

$$\psi_8 \equiv \alpha_1 x_4 + \alpha_2 x_3 + \alpha_3 x_1 + \alpha_4 x_2,$$

we easily verify the following relation:—

$$\Sigma \psi_1^2 = 2 \Sigma \alpha_1^2 \Sigma x_1^2 + 8 (\alpha_1 \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 \alpha_4) (x_1 x_2 + x_3 x_4) + 2 (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) (\alpha_3 + \alpha_4) (x_1 + x_2) (x_3 + x_4);$$

whence the functions $x_1 x_2 + x_3 x_4$, and $(x_1 + x_2)(x_3 + x_4)$ are obtained, both belonging to the given group, since there is no wider group except the symmetric in which G_1 is contained as a sub-group.

It is clear that this method may be used to discover, by means of the symmetric functions of higher orders, an infinite variety of functions corresponding to a given group.

228. Theorem.—*Every integral symmetric function of the distinct values of any integral multiple-valued function of n elements is a symmetric function of the elements themselves.*

Although this proposition appears sufficiently evident from the similarity of structure of the conjugate values $\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, \dots \phi_\rho$ of a ρ -valued function (Art. 226), we may give a formal proof as follows. Let $F(\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots \phi_\rho)$ be any rational integral symmetric function of the ρ values. Any substitution whatever S (affecting the elements) applied to these ρ values either leaves any function unchanged or replaces it by one of the others. No two of the resulting values can be equal, for if $S\phi_i$ were equal to $S\phi_j$, it would follow, by applying the substitution S^{-1} , that $\phi_i = \phi_j$, which is contrary to hypothesis. Consequently the same ρ values of ϕ are reproduced by S in some order or other. The symmetric function F therefore remains unchanged by any substitution, and is consequently a symmetric function of the elements themselves.

From this is derived immediately the following corollary:—

COR.—*The ρ distinct values of any integral multiple-valued function are roots of an equation whose coefficients are integral symmetric functions of the elements themselves.*

the solution of these equations, we refer to Ex. 1, p. 38, and Ex. 3, p. 105, from which it will be readily inferred that ψ_1 can be expressed as a rational function of ϕ_1 in the following form:—

$$\nabla(\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots \phi_p) \psi_1 = A_0 \phi_1^{p-1} + A_1 \phi_1^{p-2} + \dots + A_{p-1},$$

where ∇ has the same meaning as in Art. 203, and $A_0, A_1, \dots A_{p-1}$ are all symmetric in $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$.

It follows, conversely, that *two rational functions such that each can be expressed rationally in terms of the other belong to the same group*; for since each remains unchanged by all the substitutions which constitute the group of the other, it follows immediately that the two groups must coincide.

230. Extension of Theorem with Corollaries.—Even when the groups of ϕ_1 and ψ_1 are not identical, but one of them included as a sub-group in the other, it is still true that the function which belongs to the wider group (and which has consequently the smaller number of distinct values) is expressible rationally in terms of the function of the narrower group.

Let ϕ_1 belong to the group G_1 of the preceding Article, and let ψ_1 belong to the wider group

$$G_1' = [1, S_2, \dots S_r, S_{r+1}, \dots S_r'].$$

We have (Art. 226) the relations

$$r\rho = r'\rho' = N; \quad r' = kr; \quad \rho = k\rho';$$

there are, as before, ρ distinct values of ϕ ; but the values of ψ , viz., $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots \psi_p$, become equal in sets of k , so that only ρ' distinct values remain. It is still true, however, that the expression (1) of the preceding Article is a symmetric function of $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$; for any substitution applied to it will reproduce in some order the distinct terms of the series. The equations (2) therefore can be solved as before, and an expression obtained for ψ_1 in terms of ϕ_1 . If it be attempted, however, to express ϕ_1 in a similar form in terms of ψ_1 , the solution fails, on account of the equality of two or more of the values of ψ ; for it is

implied in the solution of these equations that no two values of ϕ are equal (see Ex. 1, p. 38). The theorem as thus extended was enunciated by Lagrange; it may be stated as follows:—

Lagrange's Theorem.—*If two rational functions of any set of variables are such that one remains unchanged by all the substitutions of the group to which the other belongs, the first is expressible by means of the second in the form of an integral polynomial whose coefficients are rational symmetric functions of the variables.*

From this proposition may be deduced important consequences which are contained in the following corollaries:—

COR. 1.—*A function can always be found in terms of which any number of given functions can be rationally expressed.*

Let ϕ, ψ, χ, \dots be the given functions, and let ω be assumed such that

$$\omega = \alpha\phi + \beta\psi + \gamma\chi + \dots,$$

where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \dots$ are arbitrary constants. The substitutions which are common to the groups of $\phi, \psi, \chi \dots$ will leave ω unchanged. Hence the group of ω is contained as a sub-group in that of each of the given functions; any one of which may therefore be expressed in terms of ω .

COR. 2.—*Any rational function whatever can be rationally expressed in terms of a function having N distinct values; in particular in terms of the Galois function.*

For the group of an N -valued function, reducing to the identical substitution, is included as a sub-group in every other.

COR. 3.—*The variables themselves can be expressed rationally in terms of the Galois function.*

The group to which x_1 , for example, belongs contains $1.2.3 \dots (n-1)$ substitutions, including, of course, the sub-group unity. The n values of this function are the n variables $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$, and each can be expressed rationally in terms of the Galois function.

The proposition contained in this corollary was stated originally by Abel without proof. Galois has given a proof

of the proposition founded on elementary principles, which we think it desirable to add, since it shows how the calculation may be conducted and the required rational expression for any one of the variables obtained.

Let $f(x) = 0$ be the equation whose roots are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , all supposed unequal; and let ψ_1 be a known value of a rational function ψ of the roots which has N distinct values.

If all the roots except x_1 be permuted in every possible way, we obtain $1.2.3 \dots (n-1) = \mu$ distinct values of ψ given by the equation

$$F(\psi) = (\psi - \psi_1)(\psi - \psi_2) \dots (\psi - \psi_\mu) = 0.$$

The coefficients of this equation when expanded are symmetric functions of x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n , and can therefore be expressed in the terms of the coefficients of

$$\frac{f(x)}{x - x_1} = 0,$$

and will involve x_1 in a rational form along with the coefficients of $f(x)$. If the expanded equation be represented by $F(\psi, x_1) = 0$, we have $F(\psi_1, x_1) = 0$, since it is satisfied by $\psi = \psi_1$; we have also $f(x_1) = 0$, from which it follows that the equations $f(x) = 0$ and $F(\psi_1, x) = 0$ have a common root. It is easily seen that this is the only root common. If therefore we seek the common measure of $f(x)$ and $F(\psi_1, x)$, and continue the process till we obtain a remainder of the first degree in x , by equating it to zero we shall find for x_1 a rational expression in terms of ψ_1 and the coefficients of $f(x)$.

Ex. For a cubic equation

$$f(x) = x^3 + p_1x^2 + p_2x + p_3 = 0,$$

if ψ be taken equal to the Galois function $\alpha_1x_1 + \alpha_2x_2 + \alpha_3x_3$, it is readily proved that $F(\psi_1, x_1)$ involves x_1 in the second power, and the problem is reduced to finding the greatest common measure of a quadratic and cubic. The question is simplified by taking the special Galois function $x_1 + \omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_3 = \psi_1$; we find in this case that the coefficient of x_1^2 vanishes, and x_1 is obtained immediately in terms of ψ_1 as follows:—

$$x_1 = \frac{\psi_1^2 - p_1\psi_1 + p_1^2 - 3p_2}{3\psi_1}.$$

COR. 4.—All the values of the Galois function can be expressed rationally in terms of any one among them.

For all belong to the same group unity.

231. Two-valued Functions. Theorem.—Every two-valued integral function of n variables is of the form $S_1 \pm S_2 \sqrt{\Delta}$, where S_1 and S_2 are integral symmetric functions, and Δ the discriminant.

A two-valued function must belong to a group of order $\frac{1}{2}N$. The only group of this order is the alternate group (Ex. 5, Art. 226), to which the function $\sqrt{\Delta}$ belongs. The theorem therefore follows as an immediate consequence of the fundamental theorem of Art. 229. On account of its importance, however, we give the following independent proof:—

Let the two values of the function be denoted by ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 , and let G_1 and G_2 be the corresponding groups, each of order $\frac{1}{2}N$. In the first place, these two groups must be identical; for if any substitution S of G_1 were to change ϕ_2 to its second value ϕ_1 , then S^{-1} would change ϕ_1 into ϕ_2 ; but this is impossible, since S^{-1} as well as S belongs to the group G_1 . Every substitution, therefore, of G_1 must belong to G_2 , and *vice versa*.

To show now that these groups coincide with the alternate group, consider the function $\phi_1 - \phi_2 = \psi$. Any substitution which belongs to the common group leaves this unaltered; any other will change ϕ_1 to ϕ_2 and ϕ_2 to ϕ_1 , and will therefore change the sign of ψ ; the *transposition* $(x_\alpha x_\beta)$, for example, will have this effect, for the group common to the two values of any alternating function could not include all transpositions without coinciding with the symmetric group. It is easily inferred that $\phi_1 - \phi_2$ is divisible by $x_\alpha - x_\beta$, and hence by the product of all the differences, since ψ^2 is symmetric.

The quotient of ψ by $\sqrt{\Delta}$ is symmetric. To prove this, let $(\sqrt{\Delta})^m$ be the highest power of $\sqrt{\Delta}$ which occurs in ψ . The quotient of ψ by $(\sqrt{\Delta})^m$ is symmetric, since, if not, it would be an alternating function, and would again contain $\sqrt{\Delta}$ as a factor, which is contrary to hypothesis. It follows immediately that

m is an odd number, and that the quotient of ψ by $\sqrt{\Delta}$ is symmetric. Writing therefore $\phi_1 - \phi_2 = A\sqrt{\Delta}$, and $\phi_1 + \phi_2 = B$, where A and B are both symmetric, we at once derive

$$\phi_1 = S_1 + S_2\sqrt{\Delta}, \quad \phi_2 = S_1 - S_2\sqrt{\Delta},$$

where S_1 and S_2 are both symmetric functions of the variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . It is, of course, also evident that the groups G_1 and G_2 coincide with the group of $\sqrt{\Delta}$, viz. the alternate group.

232. Theorem.—*The alternating functions are the only unsymmetric functions of n variables of which a power can be symmetric.*

The theorems contained in this and the next following Articles are of great importance in connexion with the problem of the general solution of algebraical equations. It will be sufficient to prove the theorem for prime powers; for if there exists a function $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ such that $F^{p \cdot q}$ is symmetric, p being prime, then there is also a function $\phi = F^q$ such that ϕ^p is symmetric. Let therefore

$$\phi^p = S, \text{ a symmetric function.}$$

Since the group of ϕ , which is unsymmetric, cannot contain all the transpositions, let $\sigma = (x_\alpha x_\beta)$ be a transposition which converts ϕ into ϕ_j ; we have

$$\phi_j^p = \phi^p = S,$$

and therefore $\phi_j = \omega\phi$, where ω is a p^{th} root of unity. Hence

$$\sigma\phi = \phi_j = \omega\phi,$$

and, operating again with σ ,

$$\sigma^2\phi = \omega\sigma\phi = \omega^2\phi;$$

but $\sigma^2 = 1$; hence $\omega^2 = 1$, and consequently $p = 2$.

Since therefore ϕ^2 is symmetric, ϕ is an alternating function, and the proposition is proved.

233. Theorem.—*For any number, n , of independent elements there is no multiple-valued function of which a power is two-valued when $n > 4$; and when $n = 3$, or $n = 4$, if there is any such power, it is a third power.*

Confining our attention as before to prime numbers, and supposing that ϕ is a multiple-valued function whose p^{th} power is two-valued, we have (Art. 231)

$$\phi^p = S_1 + S_2 \sqrt{\Delta}. \quad (1)$$

The group of ϕ cannot contain all the circular substitutions of the third order, for if it did this group would coincide with the alternate group, and ϕ would be two-valued (Ex. 7, Art. 226). Let $\sigma = (x_\alpha x_\beta x_\gamma)$ be such a substitution not contained in the group of ϕ , and suppose $\sigma\phi = \phi_j$. From the equation (1), since $S_1 + S_2 \sqrt{\Delta}$ is unaltered by σ , we have

$$\phi^p = \phi_j^p;$$

hence $\phi_j = \omega\phi$, where ω is a p^{th} root of unity. Operating again twice in succession with σ , we obtain readily

$$\sigma\phi = \omega\phi,$$

$$\sigma^2\phi = \omega\sigma\phi = \omega^2\phi,$$

$$\sigma^3\phi = \omega^2\sigma\phi = \omega^3\phi;$$

whence, since $\sigma^3 = 1$, we have $\omega^3 = 1$, and therefore $p = 3$.

Again, when the number of elements is greater than 4, there are circular substitutions of the fifth order, and these cannot be all contained in the group of ϕ (Ex. 8, Art. 226). Let τ be one of those not contained in this group, and $\tau\phi = \phi_j$. We have, as before, from the equation (1), by applying this substitution (which does not affect the right-hand side),

$$\phi^p = \phi_j^p = S_1 + S_2 \sqrt{\Delta}.$$

Hence, proceeding as before, we have $\tau\phi = \omega\phi$; and operating again on this and the succeeding equations with τ , we readily find $\tau^5\phi = \omega^5\phi$; whence $\omega^5 = 1$, since $\tau^5 = 1$, and it is proved

that $p = 5$. Now, this result being inconsistent with the value of p previously obtained, viz. 3, we infer that when the number of elements is greater than 4, it is impossible to find any multiple-valued function ϕ , a prime power of which will be two-valued.

That there are actually, when n is not greater than 4, multiple-valued functions, a third power of which is two-valued, will appear from the following applications to the cases where $n = 3$ and $n = 4$:—

1. To find a multiple-valued function of three elements whose third power is two-valued. We examine whether the problem admits of solution by means of the simplest linear function, viz.

$$\phi = \alpha x_1 + \beta x_2 + \gamma x_3;$$

that is, whether the constants α, β, γ can be determined so as to make ϕ fulfil the required conditions.

Taking $\sigma = (x_1 x_2 x_3)$, and identifying $\sigma\phi$ with $\omega\phi$, where $\omega^3 = 1$, we have

$$\alpha x_2 + \beta x_3 + \gamma x_1 \equiv \omega(\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2 + \gamma x_3);$$

whence

$$\gamma = \omega\alpha, \quad \beta = \omega\gamma, \quad \alpha = \omega\beta,$$

and immediately

$$\phi \equiv \alpha(x_1 + \omega^2 x_2 + \omega x_3).$$

Taking $\alpha = 1$, we infer that a function of the type $x_1 + \omega^2 x_2 + \omega x_3$ satisfies the conditions of the problem. This function is six-valued, and its cube two-valued (compare Art. 59, vol. i.).

The student will easily prove, in a similar manner, that any function of the type

$$x_1^m + \omega x_2^m + \omega^2 x_3^m,$$

where m is any integer, will equally well supply a solution of the problem.

2. To investigate a similar function when $n = 4$. In this case it is clear that no linear function of the type $\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2 + \gamma x_3 + \delta x_4$ can, without making $\delta = 0$, fulfil the condition of being multiplied by a factor when operated on by the substitution $\sigma = (x_1 x_2 x_3)$. We take therefore the function next in simplicity, viz. one of the type

$$\phi = \alpha x_1 x_2 + \beta x_2 x_3 + \gamma x_3 x_1 + x_4 (\alpha' x_1 + \beta' x_2 + \gamma' x_3).$$

The function obtained from this by the operation of σ is

$$\phi_j = \alpha x_2 x_3 + \beta x_3 x_1 + \gamma x_1 x_2 + x_4 (\alpha' x_2 + \beta' x_3 + \gamma' x_1).$$

Identifying ϕ_j with $\omega\phi$, and replacing $\beta, \gamma, \beta', \gamma'$ by their values in terms of α, α' , we have

$$\phi = \alpha(x_1 x_2 + \omega^2 x_2 x_3 + \omega x_3 x_1) + \alpha'(x_1 x_4 + \omega^2 x_2 x_4 + \omega x_3 x_4).$$

Operating again with a different substitution of the third order, say $\tau \equiv (x_1 x_2 x_4)$, and denoting $\tau\phi$ by ϕ_k , we have

$$\phi_k = \alpha (x_2 x_4 + \omega^2 x_4 x_3 + \omega x_3 x_2) + \alpha' (x_2 x_1 + \omega^2 x_4 x_1 + \omega x_3 x_1).$$

Identifying, as before, ϕ_k with $\theta\phi$, where θ is some cube root of unity, we find at once $\theta = \omega^2$, and $\alpha' = \omega^2 \alpha$, the remaining relations being all consistent with these. We have therefore, taking $\alpha = 1$,

$$\phi = x_1 x_2 + x_3 x_4 + \omega (x_1 x_3 + x_2 x_4) + \omega^2 (x_1 x_4 + x_2 x_3).$$

This is a function of the required kind, having itself six values, but only two values when cubed (compare Art. 66, vol. i.; and Ex. 3, Art. 226).

SECTION III.—THE GALOIS RESOLVENT.

234. Galois Resolvent—Group of an Equation.—

Let

$$F(x) = x^n + p_1 x^{n-1} + p_2 x^{n-2} + \dots + p_n = 0 \quad (1)$$

be an equation whose roots, supposed all unequal, are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , and whose coefficients are regarded as known rational quantities. The Galois function

$$\psi_1 = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n$$

has N distinct values $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_N$, corresponding to the N substitutions of the symmetric group (Art. 227). The equation of the N^{th} degree whose roots are these N values, viz.,

$$\Psi(z) = (z - \psi_1)(z - \psi_2) \dots (z - \psi_N) = 0, \quad (2)$$

is called the *Galois resolvent*. When this equation is expanded, the roots x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n will enter it in a symmetric form; hence, the coefficients of z in the expanded equation can all be expressed rationally in terms of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n . In general, this equation is irreducible; that is to say, it cannot be broken up into factors of inferior degree with rational coefficients. We proceed to examine under what circumstances it may become

reducible. For this purpose, suppose $\Psi_1(z)$ to be an irreducible factor of the r^{th} degree, with rational coefficients, contained in $\Psi(z)$, and let

$$\Psi_1(z) = (z - \psi_1)(z - \psi_2) \dots (z - \psi_r), \quad (3)$$

where $\psi_2, \psi_3, \dots, \psi_r$ are derived from ψ_1 by means of the substitutions S_2, S_3, \dots, S_r . The following propositions can be established in reference to these substitutions:—

(1). *Every function ϕ of the roots which is unchanged by the substitutions $1, S_2, S_3, \dots, S_r$ can be expressed rationally in terms of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .*

For, since each of the roots x_1, x_2, \dots is a rational function of ψ_1 and the coefficients (Art. 230), the function ϕ itself will be also a rational function of these quantities, say $f(\psi_1)$. Now, under the operation of the substitutions S_2, S_3, \dots , ϕ remains unchanged, but ψ_1 becomes in succession ψ_2, ψ_3, \dots ; hence

$$f(\psi_1) = f(\psi_2) = f(\psi_3) = \dots = \frac{1}{r} \{ f(\psi_1) + f(\psi_2) + \dots + f(\psi_r) \};$$

but the latter expression being symmetric in the roots of $\Psi_1 = 0$ can be rationally expressed by the coefficients of this equation, which are themselves rational.

(2). *Every function which is rationally expressible will be unchanged by the substitutions $1, S_2, S_3, \dots, S_r$.*

Let ϕ be a function of the roots which has a rational expression, say R ; and let $f(\psi_1)$ be the function of ψ_1 by which ϕ can be also expressed (Art. 230). We have, then, $f(\psi_1) = R$; whence the equation $f(z) - R = 0$ has a root ψ_1 in common with the equation $\Psi_1(z) = 0$; but the latter equation is irreducible, and therefore all its roots must be common to the two equations, and consequently $f(\psi_1)$ is unaltered when ψ_1 is replaced by ψ_2, ψ_3, \dots ; that is to say, ϕ is unaltered by the substitutions which change ψ_1 into $\psi_2, \psi_3, \dots, \psi_r$, in succession.

(3). *The substitutions $1, S_2, S_3, \dots, S_r$ form a group.*

The effect of the operation of any one of these substitutions, say S_a , on $\Psi_1(z)$ is to leave the function unchanged, since its

coefficients are rational; the new values, therefore, of $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots \psi_r$ derived by this substitution must be identical with the first values, the order only differing; the effect of a second of the given substitutions, say S_β , is to reproduce in some order the same values of ψ . It follows that $S_\alpha S_\beta$ is contained among the substitutions of which S_α and S_β are any two, and the proposition is therefore proved.

The group indicated in the preceding proposition, all the substitutions of which leave unchanged certain functions of the roots (not necessarily symmetrical) is called the *group of the equation*. In the case of a perfectly general equation, with no known relation among its roots, the group is the symmetric group. When an unsymmetric function of the roots can be expressed rationally in terms of the coefficients, the group which leaves this function unchanged is the group of the equation, and the equation is in this case special. The group of an equation may be any sub-group of the symmetric, according to the special character of the given equation. The number of such sub-groups, however, among which the group of the equation is to be sought, is limited by the following proposition:—

(4). *The group of an irreducible equation is transitive.*

A group is said to be *transitive* when it contains one or more substitutions whose effect is to replace any element whatever by another arbitrarily chosen. A transitive group, therefore, has in it substitutions which affect all the elements. Now let the group G of the equation be, if possible, not transitive, and let it affect only the elements $x_1, x_2, \dots x_m$ ($m < n$). The substitutions of G , altering only among themselves the positions of these m roots, will leave their symmetric functions unaltered. These symmetric functions, therefore, are rationally expressible, and the function $F(x)$ will admit a rational divisor

$$(x - x_1)(x - x_2) \dots (x - x_m),$$

and will become reducible contrary to hypothesis.

235. **Composition of the Galois Resolvent.**—Whether the Galois resolvent $\Psi(z)$ is reducible or not, its factors can be arranged in a number of products corresponding to the partition of the symmetric group by means of any selected sub-group, as follows :—

$$\Psi(z) = \Psi_1(z) \Psi_2(z) \dots \Psi_\rho(z).$$

The order of the selected group being r , and ρ the number of values of the functions of the group, all the factors Ψ_1, Ψ_2, \dots , in number ρ , are of the same degree r , one factor differing from another only in respect of the unsymmetric functions contained in them. This will be made clear by an example. For the case of four elements, let the group G_1 of Ex. 1, p. 249, be selected, with the corresponding eight Galois functions, say $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots \psi_8$; we have then

$$\Psi_1(z) = (z - \psi_1)(z - \psi_2)(z - \psi_3) \dots (z - \psi_8);$$

and if these eight factors be multiplied out, the product will contain, along with symmetric functions of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 , certain unsymmetric functions θ_1, ϕ_1, \dots belonging to the group G_1 . Let now the next eight factors of the Galois resolvent be selected, corresponding to the substitutions contained in the second row of the symmetric group written out in the example referred to: these can all be obtained from the first eight by the operation (23); and if this operation be performed on the product after the first eight factors are multiplied out, the effect is to replace the unsymmetric functions θ_1, ϕ_1, \dots by the conjugate functions θ_2, ϕ_2, \dots . In the same way, the remaining eight factors of the resolvent, corresponding to the third row of the symmetric group, are obtained by the operation (24) on the group G_1 ; and in these, when multiplied out, θ_1, ϕ_1 will be replaced by θ_3, ϕ_3, \dots , the remaining values of the three-valued functions. We have then

$$\Psi(z) = \Psi_1(z) \Psi_2(z) \Psi_3(z),$$

each of these factors being of the 8^{th} degree, and Ψ_1, Ψ_2, Ψ_3 containing unsymmetric functions belonging to the groups

G_1, G_2, G_3 , respectively, but identical in all other respects. In a similar manner, by means of any other sub-group (r, ρ) of the symmetric, the Galois resolvent can be arranged as the product of ρ factors of the r^{th} degree, where for the case of four elements $r\rho = 24$.

Similar results are of course true for the Galois resolvent of any number of elements. In general Ψ is not reducible, that is to say, none of the factors Ψ_1, Ψ_2, \dots can be expressed rationally in terms of the coefficients p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots ; but if one of the unsymmetric functions which enter into these factors is known rationally in terms of the coefficients of the equation whose roots are x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , and consequently all functions of the same group (Art. 229), the corresponding factor of Ψ is expressible rationally in terms of the coefficients. This factor may now be regarded as the resolvent; and its group, viz., the group of the known rational function, becomes the group of the equation.

What is above stated in regard to the composition of the resolvent of a quartic, when arranged in factors corresponding to the three groups of the eight order, can be readily verified by aid of the special Galois function

$$x_1 + ix_2 + i^2x_3 + i^3x_4. \quad (i = \sqrt{-1}).$$

The four linear functions of Ex. 2, Art. 227, become now

$$\psi_1 = x_1 - x_3 + i(x_2 - x_4), \quad \psi_2 = i(x_1 - x_3) + x_2 - x_4, \quad -\psi_1, \quad -\psi_2.$$

The four corresponding factors of the resolvent give the product $z^4 - 4i(x_1 - x_3)(x_2 - x_4)z^2 - \{(x_1 - x_3)^2 + (x_2 - x_4)^2\}^2$.

If with these be taken four others obtained by the operation of the substitution (13), so that the eight factors correspond to the eight substitutions of the group G_2 of Ex. 1, p. 249, we find a product differing only in the sign of i from the product last written. When these two are multiplied together, the factor Ψ_2 , of the 8th degree in z , is obtained; and its coefficients can easily be expressed in terms of symmetric functions of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 , along with the unsymmetric function $\phi_2 = x_1x_3 + x_2x_4$.

EXAMPLES.

1. To form the sextic equation whose roots are the six values of the Galois function

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3,$$

and to express its coefficients in terms of the coefficients of the cubics whose roots are x_1, x_2, x_3 , and a_1, a_2, a_3 , respectively.

The six values may be arranged in two sets, of three each, as follows:—

$$\psi_1 \equiv a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3, \quad \psi_2 \equiv a_1x_2 + a_2x_3 + a_3x_1, \quad \psi_3 \equiv a_1x_3 + a_2x_1 + a_3x_2,$$

$$\psi'_1 \equiv a_1x_1 + a_2x_3 + a_3x_2, \quad \psi'_2 \equiv a_1x_2 + a_2x_1 + a_3x_3, \quad \psi'_3 \equiv a_1x_3 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_1;$$

the first row corresponding to the substitutions of the alternate group, viz., 1, (123), (132), and the second row to the remaining three substitutions, (23), (12), (13), of the symmetric group. If now

$$\Psi_1 \equiv (z - \psi_1)(z - \psi_2)(z - \psi_3), \quad \Psi_2 \equiv (z - \psi'_1)(z - \psi'_2)(z - \psi'_3),$$

these functions are both two-valued, and have the same group (Ex. 1, Art. 227); moreover, they are unchanged by the substitutions (a_1x_1) , (a_2x_2) , (a_3x_3) , and therefore involve a_1, a_2, a_3 , and x_1, x_2, x_3 , similarly. It is easily verified that

$$\Sigma\psi_1 = \Sigma\psi'_1 = \Sigma a_1 \Sigma x_1,$$

$$\Sigma\psi_1\psi_2 = \Sigma\psi'_1\psi'_2 = \Sigma a_1^2 \Sigma x_1x_2 + \Sigma x_1^2 \Sigma a_1a_2 + \Sigma a_1a_2 \Sigma x_1x_2;$$

also $\psi_1\psi_2\psi_3$, being a two-valued function, and involving the a 's and x 's in a similar manner, must be of the form

$$S_1 \pm S_2 \sqrt{\Delta_a \Delta_x},$$

where S_1 and S_2 are symmetric in both sets of elements, and

$$\sqrt{\Delta_a} \equiv (a_1 - a_2)(a_1 - a_3)(a_2 - a_3), \quad \sqrt{\Delta_x} \equiv (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)(x_2 - x_3).$$

We have, in fact,

$$\psi_1\psi_2\psi_3 = a_1a_2a_3 \Sigma x_1^3 + x_1x_2x_3 \Sigma a_1^3 + 3x_1x_2x_3 a_1a_2a_3 + \Phi_x \Phi_a + \Phi'_x \Phi'_a,$$

where $\Phi_x = x_1^2x_2 + x_2^2x_3 + x_3^2x_1$, $\Phi'_x = x_1x_2^2 + x_2x_3^2 + x_3x_1^2$;

also $\Phi_x + \Phi'_x = \Sigma x_1 \Sigma x_1x_2 - 3x_1x_2x_3 \equiv S_x$,

$$\Phi_x - \Phi'_x = \sqrt{\Delta_x};$$

therefore $\Phi_x = \frac{1}{2}(S_x + \sqrt{\Delta_x})$, $\Phi'_x = \frac{1}{2}(S_x - \sqrt{\Delta_x})$,

and finally,

$$\psi_1\psi_2\psi_3 = a_1a_2a_3 \Sigma x_1^3 + x_1x_2x_3 \Sigma a_1^3 + 3a_1a_2a_3 x_1x_2x_3 + \frac{1}{2}(S_x S_a + \sqrt{\Delta_x \Delta_a}).$$

The value of $\psi'_1\psi'_2\psi'_3$ is obtained by changing the sign of the square root.

The cubic functions Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 , therefore, can be readily expressed in terms of the coefficients of the given cubics, each of them containing one irrational quantity. When they are multiplied together, their product, which is the Galois resolvent, will be rational in both sets of coefficients. For the complete solution we refer to Ex. 11, p. 118, vol. I.

It may be observed that, if the function of the coefficients which is equal to Δ_x is a perfect square, the value of $\sqrt{\Delta_x}$ in the coefficients becomes rational, and the Galois resolvent can be broken up into two rational factors of the third degree. In this case the cubic equation is special, and its group the alternate group. This is the only class of special irreducible equations of the third degree, for the alternate group is the only transitive sub-group of the symmetric in the case of three elements.

2. To form the equation of the 24th degree, whose roots are the several values of the Galois function $\alpha_1x_1 + \alpha_2x_2 + \alpha_3x_3 + \alpha_4x_4$; and, secondly, to determine the conditions that it can be resolved into rational factors, expressed in terms of the coefficients of the quartics whose roots are x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4$ respectively.

Let these quartics be (1) $(a, b, c, d, e)(x, 1)^4$ and (2) $(a_1, b_1, c_1, d_1, e_1)(x, 1)^4$. We have (p. 140, vol. I.),

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= -\frac{b}{a} - \sqrt{\lambda} + \sqrt{\mu} + \sqrt{\nu}, & x_2 &= -\frac{b}{a} + \sqrt{\lambda} - \sqrt{\mu} + \sqrt{\nu}, \\ x_3 &= -\frac{b}{a} + \sqrt{\lambda} + \sqrt{\mu} - \sqrt{\nu}, & x_4 &= -\frac{b}{a} - \sqrt{\lambda} - \sqrt{\mu} - \sqrt{\nu}, \end{aligned}$$

with similar values for $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4$, obtained by putting the suffix 1 to each letter in the values of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 ; whence

$$\alpha_1x_1 + \alpha_2x_2 + \alpha_3x_3 + \alpha_4x_4 = \frac{4bb_1}{aa_1} + \sqrt{\lambda}\sqrt{\lambda_1} + \sqrt{\mu}\sqrt{\mu_1} + \sqrt{\nu}\sqrt{\nu_1}.$$

Putting now

$$z = \alpha_1x_1 + \alpha_2x_2 + \alpha_3x_3 + \alpha_4x_4 - \frac{4bb_1}{aa_1},$$

we have

$$z = \sqrt{\lambda}\sqrt{\lambda_1} + \sqrt{\mu}\sqrt{\mu_1} + \sqrt{\nu}\sqrt{\nu_1},$$

and

$$z^2 - \lambda\lambda_1 - \mu\mu_1 - \nu\nu_1 = 2\sqrt{\lambda}\sqrt{\mu}\sqrt{\lambda_1}\sqrt{\mu_1}.$$

Writing also $\phi = \lambda\lambda_1 + \mu\mu_1 + \nu\nu_1$, $\psi = \lambda^2\lambda_1^2 + \mu^2\mu_1^2 + \nu^2\nu_1^2$;

squaring again, and reducing, we find

$$z^4 - 2\phi z^2 - \frac{2G G_1 z}{(a^3 a_1^3)} - \phi^2 + 2\psi = 0, \quad (\text{A})$$

since

$$\sqrt{\lambda}\sqrt{\mu}\sqrt{\nu} = \frac{G}{2a^3}, \quad \sqrt{\lambda_1}\sqrt{\mu_1}\sqrt{\nu_1} = \frac{G_1}{2a_1^3}.$$

The next step is to express ψ as a function of ϕ . For this purpose, we form the equations

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \psi_1 + \psi_2 + \psi_3 &= T_0, \\ \phi_1\psi_1 + \phi_2\psi_2 + \phi_3\psi_3 &= T_1, \\ \phi_1^2\psi_1 + \phi_2^2\psi_2 + \phi_3^2\psi_3 &= T_2, \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (B)$$

ϕ_1, ϕ_2, ϕ_3 being the values of ϕ determined by a cubic equation, whose coefficients involve only one irrational quantity, viz. $\sqrt{\Delta\lambda\Delta\lambda_1}$.

(See p. 118, vol. I.)

Similarly, ψ_1, ψ_2, ψ_3 , the corresponding values of ψ , are given by a cubic which involves the single irrational quantity $\sqrt{\Delta\lambda^2\Delta\lambda_1^2}$; also,

$$\sqrt{\Delta\lambda^2} \equiv (\lambda^2 - \mu^2)(\lambda^2 - \nu^2)(\mu^2 - \nu^2) = (\mu + \nu)(\nu + \lambda)(\lambda + \mu)\sqrt{\Delta\lambda}.$$

We proceed now to express T_0, T_1, T_2 in terms of the symmetric functions of λ, μ, ν , and λ_1, μ_1, ν_1 , with $\sqrt{\Delta\lambda\Delta\lambda_1}$, and consequently in terms of symmetric functions of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 , and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4$, with the irrational quantity $\sqrt{\Delta x\Delta\alpha}$; for, since $a^2\lambda + H = a^2\theta$, (p. 140, vol. I.)

$$\sqrt{\Delta\lambda} \equiv (\lambda - \mu)(\lambda - \nu)(\mu - \nu) = (\theta_1 - \theta_2)(\theta_1 - \theta_3)(\theta_2 - \theta_3) = \frac{1}{64}\sqrt{\Delta x},$$

$\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3$ being the roots of the reducing cubic

$$4(a\theta)^3 - I(a\theta) + J = 0;$$

substituting in equations (B) for ϕ_1, ϕ_2, ϕ_3 , and ψ_1, ψ_2, ψ_3 , their values, we find

$$T_0 = (\lambda^2 + \mu^2 + \nu^2)(\lambda_1^2 + \mu_1^2 + \nu_1^2),$$

$$T_1 = \Sigma\lambda^3\Sigma\lambda_1^3 + \Phi\Phi_1 + \Psi\Psi_1,$$

where

$$\Phi = \mu^2\nu + \nu^2\lambda + \lambda^2\mu, \quad \Psi = \mu\nu^2 + \nu\lambda^2 + \lambda\mu^2,$$

both two-valued functions, since they are unchanged by any even number of transpositions. In fact,

$$\Phi + \Psi = (\lambda + \mu + \nu)(\mu\nu + \nu\lambda + \lambda\mu) - 3\lambda\mu\nu \equiv S,$$

$$\Phi - \Psi = (\lambda - \mu)(\lambda - \nu)(\mu - \nu);$$

whence

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{2}S + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\Delta\lambda}, \quad \Psi = \frac{1}{2}S - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\Delta\lambda},$$

where S is a symmetric function, and therefore

$$T_1 = \Sigma\lambda^3\Sigma\lambda_1^3 + \frac{1}{2}(SS_1 - \sqrt{\Delta\lambda\Delta\lambda_1}).$$

Again, in order to calculate T_2 , we have

$$T_2 = \Sigma\lambda^4\Sigma\lambda_1^4 + 2\Sigma\mu^2\nu^2\Sigma\mu_1^2\nu_1^2 + 2\lambda\mu\nu\lambda_1\mu_1\nu_1\Sigma\lambda\Sigma\lambda_1 + 2\Phi\Phi_1 + 2\Psi\Psi_1,$$

where

$$\Phi = \mu^3\nu + \nu^3\lambda + \lambda^3\mu, \quad \Psi = \mu\nu^3 + \nu\lambda^3 + \lambda\mu^3,$$

both two-valued functions. In fact,

$$\Phi + \Psi = (\mu\nu + \nu\lambda + \lambda\mu)(\lambda^2 + \mu^2 + \nu^2) - \lambda\mu\nu(\lambda + \mu + \nu) \equiv S,$$

$$\Phi - \Psi = (\lambda + \mu + \nu)(\lambda - \mu)(\lambda - \nu)(\mu - \nu);$$

$$\therefore \Phi = \frac{1}{2}S + \frac{1}{2}S'\sqrt{\Delta\lambda}, \quad \Psi = \frac{1}{2}S - \frac{1}{2}S'\sqrt{\Delta\lambda}, \quad \text{where } S' \equiv \lambda + \mu + \nu;$$

and therefore, finally,

$$T_2 = \Sigma\lambda^4\Sigma\lambda_1^4 + 2\Sigma\mu^2\nu^2\Sigma\mu_1^2\nu_1^2 + 2\lambda\mu\nu\lambda_1\mu_1\nu_1\Sigma\lambda\Sigma\lambda_1 + \frac{1}{2}(SS_1 - S'S_1\sqrt{\Delta\lambda\Delta\lambda_1}).$$

It is then proved that T_0, T_1, T_2 involve only symmetric functions rationally, and the irrational quantity $\sqrt{\Delta\lambda\Delta\lambda_1}$.

Now, solving the equations (B), we have

$$\psi = P\phi^2 + Q\phi + R,$$

where P, Q, R are expressible by symmetric functions of λ, μ, ν , and λ_1, μ_1, ν_1 with $\sqrt{\Delta\lambda\Delta\lambda_1}$ (Art. 229).

When this value of ψ is substituted in equation (A), it becomes of the form

$$\mathfrak{z}^4 - 2\phi\mathfrak{z}^2 - \frac{2GG_1}{(aa_1)^3}\mathfrak{z} + (2P - 1)\phi^2 + 2Q\phi + 2R = 0,$$

ϕ being determined by the equation

$$\phi^3 - 3II_1\phi - \frac{1}{32} \left\{ 27JJ_1 + \sqrt{(I^3 - 27J^2)(I_1^3 - 27J_1^2)} \right\} = 0, \quad (C)$$

obtained by substituting $-\frac{I}{12}$ for H , and $\frac{J}{4}$ for G in the cubic equation of p. 118, vol. I.; also

$$a^3\sqrt{\Delta_x} = 16\sqrt{I^3 - 27J^2}, \quad \text{and} \quad a_1^3\sqrt{\Delta_x} = 16\sqrt{I_1^3 - 27J_1^2}.$$

Now, eliminating ϕ between these equations, we obtain one equation of the 12th degree in z , involving the single irrational quantity $\sqrt{\Delta_x\Delta_x}$, and a second of the same degree by changing the sign of $\sqrt{\Delta_x\Delta_x}$. If the three values of ϕ determined by equation (C) be substituted in equation (A), we can resolve this equation of the 12th degree into three quartics; but this would involve the cube root of $\sqrt{\Delta_x\Delta_x}$, and, in addition, the cube roots of unity.

The value of ϕ expressed in terms of x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 , and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4$ is

$$\frac{1}{16}\phi = \Sigma(x_2 + x_3 - x_1 - x_4)^2(\alpha_2 + \alpha_3 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_4)^2 = \lambda\lambda_1 + \mu\mu_1 + \nu\nu_1;$$

and since ϕ_1, ϕ_2, ϕ_3 are connected in pairs by a homographic relation involving $\sqrt{\Delta_x\Delta_x}$ and the cube root of unity (see Art. 60, vol. I.), only one value of ϕ is required to complete the resolution of the equation of the 12th degree into three quartics.

As in the preceding example, it appears that the two factors of the Galois resolvent, each of the 12th degree, become rational in the coefficients when the discriminant is a perfect square; and in this case the group of the equation so characterized reduces to the alternate group.

3. To determine under what conditions the Galois resolvent breaks up into factors in the case of the quintic when a_r is replaced by α^r in the Galois function

$$\psi = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \alpha_3 x_3 + \alpha_4 x_4 + \alpha_5 x_5,$$

α being an imaginary fifth root of unity.

The function ψ has 120 values; and when α^r is put in place of α_r , with the condition $\alpha^5 = 1$, the Galois resolvent takes the form

$$(\psi^5 - \psi_1^5)(\psi^5 - \psi_2^5) \dots (\psi^5 - \psi_{24}^5) = 0;$$

for, if ψ_r is a root, so also are $\alpha\psi_r, \alpha^2\psi_r, \alpha^3\psi_r, \alpha^4\psi_r$.

We now put $\psi^5 = \theta$, and from the values of θ select the following four:—

$$\theta_1 = (\alpha x_1 + \alpha^2 x_2 + \alpha^3 x_3 + \alpha^4 x_4 + x_5)^5,$$

$$\theta_2 = (\alpha^2 x_1 + \alpha^4 x_2 + \alpha x_3 + \alpha^3 x_4 + x_5)^5,$$

$$\theta_3 = (\alpha^3 x_1 + \alpha x_2 + \alpha^4 x_3 + \alpha^2 x_4 + x_5)^5,$$

$$\theta_4 = (\alpha^4 x_1 + \alpha^3 x_2 + \alpha^2 x_3 + \alpha x_4 + x_5)^5,$$

of which the last three are obtained by substituting in succession $\alpha^2, \alpha^3, \alpha^4$ for α in θ_1 , and reducing by the equation $\alpha^5 = 1$. It should be noticed that, since 5 is a prime number, if in the series $\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3, \alpha^4$ we replace α by α^2 , the same roots are reproduced in a different order.

From $\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \theta_4$ the 24 values of θ can be obtained, in six sets of four, by the six permutations of x_1, x_2, x_3 ; for x_4 , having all the multipliers possible, viz. $\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3, \alpha^4$, need not be permuted. Every symmetric function of $\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \theta_4$ has six values obtained by the same permutations. The resolvent is therefore the product of six quartics of the type

$$\theta^4 + \phi\theta^3 + \rho\theta^2 + \sigma\theta + \tau = 0.$$

Again, since $\sum_1^6 \phi_r^\lambda \tau_r^\mu$ is the sum of all the values $\phi^\lambda \tau^\mu$ can assume, it is unchanged by any substitution, the order only being affected; it is therefore expressible by the coefficients of the quintic; whence, making $\mu = 1$, we find by Art. 229 that τ is a rational function of ϕ . The same is true for all the coefficients; therefore if one is known, all are known. Now, let $\mu = 0$, then $\sum_1^6 \phi_r^\lambda$ is known, and we can therefore form a sextic for determining ϕ ; and by adjoining the roots of this sextic, this particular form of the resolvent becomes the product of six quartics in $\theta \equiv \psi^5$.

Thus the solution of the quintic depends on the solution of a sextic, as Lagrange has pointed out. The analogous method was successful in solving the cubic, by reducing it to a quadratic in ψ^3 . In the case of the septic, a similar treatment of the Galois resolvent would reduce it to 120 sextics in ψ^7 .

SECTION IV.—THE ALGEBRAIC SOLUTION OF EQUATIONS.

236. Application of the Theory of Substitutions to the Algebraic Solution of Equations.—The problem of the solution of an algebraic equation may be stated as follows:—From the given values of the single-valued functions p_1, p_2, \dots , viz. the coefficients of the equation, to find the value of an N -valued function, viz. a root of the Galois resolvent; for we have seen (Art. 230, *Cor.* 3) that each of the roots x_1, x_2, \dots can be expressed rationally in terms of any Galois function. Although the actual determination of the roots in terms of the given coefficients is not facilitated by this mode of procedure, yet the statement of the problem in this form is important in reference to the question of the possibility of the solution of algebraic equations generally.

The known solutions of the cubic and biquadratic may from this point of view be presented briefly as follows:—

(1). In the case of the cubic equation

$$x^3 + p_1x^2 + p_2x + p_3 = 0,$$

we have to find from the given single-valued functions p_1, p_2, p_3 a six-valued function of the form $a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3$ by the extraction of roots. In the first place, all two-valued functions can be expressed rationally (Art. 229) in terms of the two-valued function

$$\sqrt{\Delta_3} = \pm (x_1 - x_2)(x_1 - x_3)(x_2 - x_3),$$

and therefore in terms of p_1, p_2, p_3 , along with the square root of a known function of the coefficients (Art. 42, Vol. I.). Now we have found (Art. 233, Ex. 2) a six-valued function $x_1 + \omega x_2 + \omega^2 x_3 = \psi_1$, whose cube is two-valued. ψ_1 itself therefore can be expressed by means of a cube root of a function of the coefficients in addition to the square root previously introduced (cf. Art. 59, Vol. I.). A six-valued function having

been thus obtained, the solution of the equation is theoretically complete.

(2). In the case of the biquadratic equation

$$x^4 + p_1x^3 + p_2x^2 + p_3x + p_4 = 0,$$

we have to find a 24-valued function of the form

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3 + a_4x_4$$

from the single-valued functions p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4 by the extraction of roots.

As in the preceding case, any two-valued function can be expressed rationally in terms of p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4 , along with the two-valued function $\sqrt{\Delta_4}$, and hence in terms of these coefficients along with the square root of a known function of the coefficients (Ex. 15, p. 126, Vol. I.). Now, referring to Art. 233, Ex. 2, we find the six-valued function

$$\phi = x_1x_2 + x_3x_4 + \omega (x_1x_3 + x_2x_4) + \omega^2 (x_1x_4 + x_2x_3),$$

whose third power is two-valued; ϕ will be expressible therefore by the aid of a cube root of a known function of the coefficients. We have now to find a means of passing from this six-valued function to a 24-valued function. The group of ϕ is (Ex. 3, Art. 226),

$$H \equiv [1, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)], \quad (\rho = 6, r = 4),$$

and a second function belonging to the same group is

$$\theta^2 = (x_1 + x_2 - x_3 - x_4)^2 (x_1x_3 + x_2x_4)^2.$$

This function is rationally expressible in terms of ϕ ; and the value of θ therefore is obtained in terms of the coefficients by the aid of an additional square root. The group of θ is

$$[1, (12)(34)], \quad (\rho = 12, r = 2),$$

to which the following function also belongs:—

$$\psi^2 = \{a_1(x_1 - x_2) + a_3(x_3 - x_4)\}^2;$$

ψ^2 is expressible in terms of θ ; and finally ψ , which is a

24-valued function, is obtained by the aid of another square root.

The process illustrated in these two cases may be described as the successive reduction of the group of an equation by the adjunction of radicals to the domain of known quantities. The symmetric group is in each case first reduced to the alternate by the addition to the known coefficients of the square root of the discriminant. The further reduction depends on the included sub-groups of the alternate, till finally the group unity to which the Galois function belongs is reached. If the solution of the quintic were attempted by this method, we could proceed no further with the reduction than the first step, since, as has been seen (Art. 233), there exists in this case no multiple-valued function of the roots of which a power is two-valued. It cannot, however, be inferred immediately from this that the algebraic solution of the quintic is impossible. Before making this inference it will be necessary to examine closely the algebraic character of the formula which is the possible expression of a root of an algebraic equation; and hence to show the propriety of the application of the theory of substitutions to the problem.

For this purpose we proceed in the first place to explain the distinction between quantities which are to be regarded as rational and those which are to be regarded as irrational; or, in Kronecker's language, to define the *rational domain*.

237. Definition of Rational Domain.—All rational functions, with integral coefficients, of certain parameters $R', R'', R'''\dots$ constitute the rational domain (R', R'', R''', \dots) . If amongst any functions of this domain the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and involution to an integral power are performed, the resulting quantities still belong to the rational domain.

The extraction of roots will, in general, lead to quantities outside the domain. We may, however, limit ourselves to the extraction of roots of prime order, since an $(mn)^{th}$ root can

be replaced by an m^{th} root of an n^{th} root, and all numbers can be resolved into prime factors.

The theory of substitutions applies exclusively to rational functions of the roots of equations; whence, if this theory is to be applied, we must avoid bringing irrational functions of the roots into our investigations.

If the student refers to the expressions given for the roots of the quadratic, cubic, and biquadratic equations in terms of their coefficients, it will be found, when the roots are substituted in place of the coefficients, these expressions become rational functions of the roots involving the cube roots of unity, the rational domain consisting of the coefficients of the equations and the cube roots of unity.

It will appear subsequently if any algebraic formula which is an expression for a root of an equation of a higher degree exists, it must become a rational function of the roots (when they replace the coefficients) involving several primitive roots of unity; and finally, the theory of substitutions proves that functions of the roots do not exist satisfying such conditions, and that the algebraic solution of the higher equations is impossible.

238. Form of the Roots of Equations algebraically solvable.—If $f(x) = 0$ be an equation, the coefficients of which are included in the rational domain $(R', R'', R''' \dots)$, and which moreover we suppose irreducible in this domain, we say that this equation is solvable algebraically when it is possible to satisfy the equation by substituting for x an expression formed of elements within the domain (R', R'', \dots) by means of the following operations of algebra, viz. addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, raising to integer powers, and the extraction of integer roots, the number of such operations being finite.

The value of x thus determined is designated as an *algebraic* function of the domain $(R', R'', R''' \dots)$.

The building up of this algebraic function may always be completed in the following manner:—

1°. Calculate a rational function of the elements of the domain, viz.,

$$F_v(R', R'', R''' \dots).$$

2°. Calculate a quantity V_v satisfying the equation

$$V_v^{p_v} = F_v(R', R'', R''' \dots),$$

where p_v is a prime number. We also suppose that F_v is not an exact p_v^{th} power, for if it was, V_v would be included in the primitive domain.

3°. Adjoining V_v to the primitive domain, form a rational function $F_{v-1}(V_v, R', R'', R''' \dots)$ in this extended domain, and calculate V_{v-1} from the binomial equation

$$V_{v-1}^{p_{v-1}} = F_{v-1}(V_v, R', R'', R''' \dots),$$

where p_{v-1} is a prime number. We also suppose that this root cannot be immediately extracted, for if so, V_{v-1} would be included in the domain (V_v, R', R'', \dots) .

4°. Adjoining V_{v-1} to the last domain, form a new rational function in this new domain $F_{v-2}(V_{v-1}, V_v, R', R'', \dots)$, and so on.

We can therefore represent the formation of the algebraic function x_1 where $f(x_1) = 0$, by the following chain of equations:—

$$\begin{aligned} V_v^{p_v} &= F_v(R', R'', \dots), \\ V_{v-1}^{p_{v-1}} &= F_{v-1}(V_v, R', R'', \dots), \\ V_{v-2}^{p_{v-2}} &= F_{v-2}(V_{v-1}, V_v, R', R'', \dots), \\ &\cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \quad \cdot \\ V_1^{p_1} &= F_1(V_2, V_3, \dots V_v, R', R'', \dots), \\ x_1 &= F_0(V_1, V_2, \dots V_v, R', R'', \dots), \end{aligned} \tag{A}$$

where the functions F are rational and the numbers p prime.

Before proceeding further, it is desirable to express the functions F in an integral form, if they are not so expressed already; and to fix our ideas we shall take $\nu = 3$, the method being the same in every case. Supposing F_1 not an integer function of V_2 and V_3 , we can always put

$$F_1 = \frac{\phi(V_2, V_3)}{\psi(V_2, V_3)},$$

ϕ and ψ being rational and integer functions.

From the chain of equations we have in this case

$$V_3^{p_3} = F_3(R), \quad V_2^{p_2} = F_2(V_3, R), \quad R = (R', R'', \dots).$$

Also, if ω be a primitive root of the equation $x^{p_2} - 1 = 0$,

$$\psi(V_2, V_3) \psi(\omega V_2, V_3) \psi(\omega^2 V_2, V_3) \dots \psi(\omega^{p_2-1} V_2, V_3) = \Psi_1(V_2^{p_2} V_3).$$

Again, the product of these factors, omitting the first, is rational, being independent of ω . Now eliminating $V_2^{p_2}$ by means of the equation

$$V_2^{p_2} = F_2(V_3, R), \quad \Psi_1(V_2^{p_2}, V_3) \text{ becomes } \Psi_2(V_3, R).$$

Treating Ψ_2 in a similar manner, it is converted into a function of the form $\Psi_3(V_3^{p_3}, R)$, the multiplier being rational; now eliminating $V_3^{p_3}$, Ψ_3 becomes $\Psi_4(R)$.

Finally, multiplying the numerator ϕ by these rational factors, which were applied to ψ , &c., &c., the value of F_1 is unaltered and the denominator is a function of $R = (R', R'', R''', \dots)$. Thus F_1 is expressed as a rational function of V_2, V_3 , in an integral form.

And therefore, in general, we are enabled to write *any* rational function of the V 's, viz., F_{a-1} as follows:—

$$F_{a-1}(V_a, V_{a+1} \dots V_\nu, R) = J_0 + J_1 V_a + J_2 V_a^2 \dots + J_{p_a-1} V_a^{p_a-1},$$

where the functions J are integer functions of $V_{a+1}, V_{a+2}, \dots V_\nu$, and fractional only in R', R'', \dots

It will be necessary now to prove a fundamental theorem of Abel's of which frequent use will subsequently be made.

239. **Theorem.**—If the equations

$$f_1 x^{p-1} + f_2 x^{p-2} + \dots + f_p = 0, \quad (1)$$

$$x^p - F = 0, \quad (2)$$

where p is a prime number, are simultaneously satisfied, either $f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots, f_p$ all vanish, or else one of the roots of the equation (2) can be expressed rationally in terms of f_1, f_2, \dots, f_p and F .

For, suppose the coefficients of equation (1) not to vanish, then the equations (1) and (2) have a greatest common divisor

$$x^p + g_1 x^{p-1} + g_2 x^{p-2} + \dots + g_p = 0, \quad (3)$$

the coefficients of which are rational functions of F, f_1, f_2, \dots, f_p . Now if x_1 be any one of the roots common to the equations (1) and (2), the other roots will be of the form

$$\omega^\alpha x_1, \omega^\beta x_1, \dots \text{ where } \omega^p - 1 = 0;$$

whence

$$g_p = x_1^p \omega^{\alpha+\beta} \dots = \omega^\pi x_1^p. \quad (4)$$

Again, since p is a prime number, we can find two numbers m and n such that $mp \pm np = 1$. Also

$$g_p^n = \omega^{n\pi} x_1^{np} = \omega^{n\pi} x_1^{(1-mp)},$$

and by (2)

$$\omega^{n\pi} x_1 = g_p^n F^m;$$

therefore $\omega^{n\pi} x_1$, which is a root of equation (2), is expressed rationally in terms of F, f_1, f_2, \dots, f_p .

240. We proceed now to make a further reduction in the form of

$$F_{\alpha-1} = J_0 + J_1 V_\alpha + J_2 V_\alpha^2 + \dots + J_{p_\alpha-1} V_\alpha^{p_\alpha-1},$$

so that J_1 may be equal to unity.

Let J_κ be one of the coefficients J_1, J_2, \dots which does not vanish, and putting

$$J_\kappa V_\alpha^\kappa = W_\alpha,$$

there are integer numbers m and n , such that

$$m\kappa + np_\alpha = 1;$$

whence

$$J_\kappa^m V_\alpha^{m\kappa} = J_\kappa^m V_\alpha^{(1-np_\alpha)} = W_\alpha^m;$$

therefore, we have

$$V_a = W_a^m F_a^n J_\kappa^{-m}, \quad \therefore F_a = V_a^{p_a}.$$

Hence V_a and W_a can be expressed the one in terms of the other and the elements $V_{a+1}, V_{a+2}, \dots V_\nu$, so that the rational domains

$$(V_a, V_{a+1}, \dots V_\nu, R', R'', \dots) \text{ and } (W_a, V_{a+1}, \dots V_\nu, R', R'', \dots)$$

are equivalent.

Again, there is no power of V_a lower than p_a which is rational in this domain. For, if

$$W_a^q = \Phi(V_{a+1}, V_{a+2}, \dots V_\nu),$$

where $q < p_a$,

$$J_\kappa^q V_a^{\kappa q} = \Phi(V_{a+1}, V_{a+2}, \dots V_\nu);$$

but κq is not divisible by p_a , for p_a being a prime number should divide κ or q ; but both are less than p_a , and consequently we should conclude that a power of V_a less than p_a should be rationally expressible, which is impossible, p_a being the lowest power of V_a which is a rational function of $V_{a+1}, V_{a+2}, \dots V_\nu$.

Moreover, by raising W_a to the power p_a we have

$$W_a^{p_a} = J_\kappa^{p_a} F_a^\kappa = \Psi(V_{a+1}, V_{a+2}, \dots V_\nu, R', R'', \dots);$$

whence we learn that W_a , like V_a , is given by a binomial equation of the degree p_a , and we can replace the one by the other in the chain of equations connecting the V_a .

It follows that we can introduce W_a in place of V_a where it occurs in the functions $F_{a-1}, F_{a-2}, \dots F_1$.

Therefore, in

$$F_{a-1} = J_0 + J_1 V_a + J_2 V_a^2 + \dots + J_{p_a-1} V_a^{p_a-1},$$

when we replace $J_h V_a^h$ by its value $J_h (F_a J_\kappa^{-m})^h W_a^{mh}$, this function is of the form $L_{h'} W_a^{h'}$, where $mh = p_a + h'$, and $L_{h'}$ is a rational function of $V_{a+1}, V_{a+2}, \dots V_\nu$, which can be rendered integral by Art. 238.

It should be noticed that when h is given the values $1, 2, 3, \dots p_\alpha - 1$ in the equation $mh = lp_\alpha + h'$, h' has for its values $1, 2, 3, \dots p_\alpha - 1$ in some order, since all its values are distinct and less than p_α ; also since $m\kappa + np_\alpha = 1$, κ is the only value of h for which the remainder $h' = 1$.

We see then that

$$F_{\alpha-1} = J_0 + W_\alpha + L_2 W_\alpha^2 + \dots + L_{p_\alpha-1} W_\alpha^{p_\alpha-1},$$

where the L 's have been rendered integral and $L_1 = 1$, and we return to the old notation by putting V_α for W_α , and $J_1 = 1$. We have then, finally, the important result

$$F_{\alpha-1}(V_\alpha, V_{\alpha+1} \dots V_\nu, R) = J_0 + V_\alpha + J_2 V_\alpha^2 \dots + J_{p_\alpha-1} V_\alpha^{p_\alpha-1};$$

whence expanding the function

$$F_0(V_1, V_2, \dots V_\nu, R', R'' \dots) = x_1,$$

a root of the equation $f(x) = 0$ in powers of V_1 (the V with lowest suffix), and making the foregoing reductions, we have

$$x_1 = G_0 + V_1 + G_2 V_1^2 + \dots + G_{p_1-1} V_1^{p_1-1}.$$

241. We proceed now to apply this theory to the solution of equations which are solvable algebraically.

For this purpose, forming the different powers of x_1 , and taking care to reduce the exponents of $V_1, V_2 \dots$ so as to be respectively less than p_1, p_2, \dots by means of the chain of equations which define V_1, V_2, \dots , we shall arrive at the result

$$f(x_1) = H_0 + H_1 V_1 + H_2 V_1^2 + \dots + H_{p_1-1} V_1^{p_1-1} = 0$$

by hypothesis, where $H_0, H_1, H_2 \dots$ are integer functions of the V 's.

By Abel's theorem $H_0, H_1, \dots H_{p_1-1}$ must all vanish; for if not, the equations

$$H_0 + H_1 V_1 + \dots + H_{p_1-1} V_1^{p_1-1} = 0, \quad V_1^{p_1} = F_1(V_2, V_3 \dots V_\nu, R', R'', \dots),$$

would be simultaneously satisfied, and F_1 would be an exact p_1^{th} power in the domain $(V_2, V_3, \dots V_\nu)$, which is contrary to hypothesis.

In a similar manner, expanding H_j in powers of V_2 , viz.,

$$H_j = K_0 + K_1 V_2 + K_2 V_2^2 \dots + K_{p_2-1} V_2^{p_2-1},$$

the coefficients K_0, K_1, \dots should all vanish for exactly analogous reasons. But if V_2 be absent, expand in powers of V_3 , &c., &c.

If in any case the coefficients of these successive functions do not vanish when arranged in powers of V_i , their indices having been reduced as much as possible, it is a proof that we have neglected to secure that each function F in the chain of equations is not an exact power, or that the number of the elements V has not been reduced to a minimum.

We have an example of this deficient reduction in the case of the cubic equation which we insert now, as an illustration.

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^3 + 3Px - 2Q,$$

$$x_1 = \sqrt[3]{Q + \sqrt{Q^2 + P^3}} + \sqrt[3]{Q - \sqrt{Q^2 + P^3}}. \quad \text{Vol. I., p. 45.}$$

The chain of equations is as follows:—

$$V_3^2 = Q^2 + P^3, \quad V_2^3 = Q + V_3, \quad V_1^3 = Q - V_3, \quad (\text{A})$$

$$x_1 = V_1 + V_2;$$

$$\text{whence} \quad \frac{1}{2}f(x_1) = P V_2 + (V_2^2 + P) V_1 + V_2 V_1^2;$$

the coefficients of this equation, $P, V_2^2 + P, V_2$ cannot vanish identically, which is a proof that the functions V have not been reduced to a minimum number; and we proceed to show that V_1 is a part of the rational domain (V_2, V_3, P, Q) .

From the chain of equations (A),

$$(V_1 V_2)^3 = Q^2 - V_3^2 = -P^3; \quad \text{whence} \quad V_1 V_2 = -P.$$

$$\text{Again,} \quad V_1 = -\frac{P}{V_2} = -\frac{P V_2^2}{Q + V_3} = \frac{(Q - V_3) V_2^2}{P^2};$$

whence V_1 is a part of the domain (V_2, V_3, P, Q) .

The chain of equations (A) is therefore reduced to

$$V_3^2 = Q^2 + P^3, \quad V_2^3 = Q + V_3, \quad x_1 = V_2 - \frac{P}{V_2} = V_2 + \frac{(Q - V_3) V_2^2}{P^2}.$$

The other two roots are obtained by putting ωV_2 and $\omega^2 V_2$ for V_2 , the last element of the chain (A),

$$x_2 = \omega V_2 + \frac{Q - V_3}{P^2} \omega^2 V_2^2,$$

$$x_3 = \omega^2 V_2 + \frac{Q - V_3}{P^2} \omega V_2^2.$$

Resuming the general investigation, we have

$$x_1 = G_0 + V_1 + G_2 V_2^2 + G_3^3 V_2^3, \dots \quad (1)$$

$$f(x_1) = H_0 + H_1 V_1 + H_2 V_2^2 + H_3 V_2^3 \dots = 0,$$

the coefficients H all vanishing.

Now, substituting in (1) for V_1 , $\omega_1 V_1$, $\omega_1^2 V_1, \dots \omega_1^{p_1-1} V_1$, we obtain the values of $x_2, x_3, \dots x_{p_1}$, where $\omega_1^{p_1} - 1 = 0$, from the system of equations

$$x_{\kappa+1} = G_0 + \omega_1^\kappa V_1 + G_2 \omega_1^{2\kappa} V_1^2 \dots \quad (\kappa = 0, 1, 2, \dots p_1 - 1);$$

and finally, from this system of equations we have

$$V_1 = \frac{1}{p_1} \sum \omega_1^{-\kappa} x_{\kappa+1}; \quad (2)$$

whence we conclude that the irrational function of the coefficients V_1 is a rational function of the roots when the primitive root of unity ω_1 is adjoined to the rational domain.

To prove the same for V_2 , interchange the roots in (2) in every way, and so form an equation

$$(y - V_1^{p_1})(y - V_1'^{p_1})(y - V_1''^{p_1}) \dots = \phi(y) = 0,$$

which has for roots all the values of $V_1^{p_1}$, which consequently is a symmetric function of $x_1, x_2, \dots x_{p_1}$; that it will take this form is easily seen, for if V_1 is a root, $\omega_1^{\kappa+1} V_1$ is another value of V_1 .

We have then

$$y_1 = \left[\frac{1}{p_1} \sum \omega^{-\kappa} x_{\kappa+1} \right]^{p_1} = V_1^{p_1} = L_0 + L_1 V_2 + L_2 V_2^2 \dots,$$

where L_1 is equal to 1. Proceeding now similarly, as in the case of x_1 , $\phi(y)$ replacing $f(x)$,

$$V_2 = \frac{1}{p_2} \sum \omega_2^{-\kappa} y_{\kappa+1}, \quad (\kappa = 0, 1, 2, \dots, p_2 - 1), \quad \omega_2^{p_2} - 1 = 0;$$

so V_2 is a rational function of the roots of $f(x)$ when ω_1 and ω_2 are adjoined to the rational domain, and similarly for all the V 's when certain primitive roots of unity are adjoined.

Summing up the results arrived at, we have the following:—

Theorem.—*If an equation $f(x) = 0$, the coefficients of which are rational functions of the quantities R', R'', \dots can be satisfied by an explicit algebraic function*

$$x = F(V_1, V_2, \dots, V_\nu, R', R'', \dots),$$

the quantities V are rational and integral functions of the roots, and of the primitive roots of unity; they are, moreover, determined by a chain of equations of the form

$$V_\alpha^{p_\alpha} = F_\alpha(V_{\alpha-1}, V_{\alpha-2}, \dots, V_\nu, R', R'', \dots),$$

wherein the indices p are all prime numbers, and the functions F all rational.

This theorem makes it possible to apply the theory of substitutions to the proof of the proposition that general equations of degree higher than the fourth are not algebraically solvable. The proof is as follows:—

It has been shown that the first irrational function V_ν is the p_ν^{th} root of a function rational in the domain (R', R'', \dots) , and as V_ν is a rational function of the roots such that $V_\nu^{p_\nu}$ is symmetrical, it is, by Art. 232, the square root of the discriminant Δ , or of the form $S\sqrt{\Delta}$, where S is a symmetric function of the roots. Consequently, $p_\nu = 2$.

If we adjoin $S\sqrt{\Delta}$ to the rational domain, we include all the one-valued and two-valued functions of the roots. Proceeding another step, there must be a rational function of the roots $V_{\nu-1}$, which is $2p_{\nu-1}$ valued, and of which the $p_{\nu-1}^{th}$ power is two-valued,

but no such function exists when $n > 4$ (Art. 233). Consequently the process, which should have led to the roots, cannot be continued.

We conclude, therefore, that *the general equation of degree higher than the fourth cannot be solved algebraically.*

In the foregoing investigation we have followed the systematic treatment of this question given by Netto in his *Substitutionentheorie*. The principles on which the investigation rests are due to Abel, who was the first to establish in a rigorous manner the impossibility of the algebraic solution of equations of a degree higher than the fourth. The fundamental theorem of the present Article was stated by him in the following form:—*If an algebraic equation is solvable algebraically, we can always give to the root such a form that all the algebraic functions of which it is composed can be expressed rationally in terms of the roots of the proposed equation* (Abel, *Œuvres Complètes*, 1881, Vol. I., p. 75). The manner in which this theorem is applied in the proof given above is a modification of Abel's proof introduced by Wantzel, to whom the propositions, in the theory of substitutions, of Arts. 232 and 233, appear to be due (see Serret's *Cours d'Algèbre Supérieure*, Vol. II., p. 484).

NOTES.

NOTE A.

DETERMINANTS.

THE expressions which form the subject-matter of Chapter XIII. were first called “determinants” by Cauchy, this name being adopted by him from the writings of Gauss, who had applied it to certain special classes of these functions, viz. the discriminants of binary and ternary quadratic forms. Although Leibnitz had observed in 1693 the peculiarity of the expressions which arise from the solution of linear equations, no further advance in the subject took place until Cramer, in 1750, was led to the study of such functions in connexion with the analysis of curves. To Cramer is due the rule of signs of Art. 128. During the latter part of the eighteenth century the subject was further enlarged by the labours of Bezout, Laplace, Vandermonde, and Lagrange. In the nineteenth century the earliest cultivators of this branch of mathematics were Gauss and Cauchy; the former of whom, in addition to his investigations relative to the discriminants of quadratic forms, proved, for the particular cases of the second and third order, that the product of two determinants is itself a determinant. To Cauchy we are indebted for the first formal treatise on the subject. In his memoir on *Alternate Functions*, published in the *Journal de l'École Polytechnique*, Vol. X., he discusses determinants as a particular class of such functions, and proves several important general theorems relating to them. A great impulse was given to the study of these expressions by the writings of Jacobi in Crelle's *Journal*, and by his memoirs published in 1841. Among many mathematicians who have advanced this subject in more recent years may be mentioned Brioschi, Hermite, Hesse, Joachimsthal, Cayley, Sylvester, and Salmon. There is now no department of

mathematics, pure or applied, in which the employment of this calculus is not of great assistance, not only furnishing brevity and elegance in the demonstration of known properties, but even leading to new discoveries in mathematical science. Among recent works which have rendered the subject accessible to students may be mentioned Spottiswoode's *Elementary Theorems relating to Determinants*, London, 1851; Brioschi's *La teorica dei Determinanti*, Pavia, 1854; Baltzer's *Theorie und Anwendung der Determinanten*, Leipzig, 1864; Dostor's *Éléments de la théorie des Déterminants*, Paris, 1877; Scott's *Theory of Determinants*, Cambridge, 1880; and the chapters in Salmon's *Lessons Introductory to the Modern Higher Algebra*, Dublin, 1876. For further information on the history of this subject the reader is referred to Muir's *Theory of Determinants in the historical order of its development*, London, 1890. In Salmon's *Higher Algebra* there are short historical notes on Eliminants, Invariants, Covariants, and Linear Transformations, as well as on Determinants.

NOTE B.

COMBINED FORMS.

We give here, as an Appendix to Chap. XVIII., an enumeration of the concomitants of two quartics U and V . For this purpose it is convenient to use the notation $(\psi, \phi)^p$ for $(1, 2)^p \phi_1 \psi_2$, when the distinction between the variables is removed. In this notation we have the sixteen concomitants $(U_x, V_x)^p, (U_x, H'_x)^p, (V_x, H_x)^p, (H_x, H'_x)^p$, when p has the four values 1, 2, 3, 4, viz. twelve covariants and four invariants; but of these Sylvester has reduced (H_x, H'_x) and $(H_x, H'_x)^2$, so that only ten independent covariants are obtained in this way; we have, however, to add the four quadratic covariants $(G_x, V_x)^4, (G'_x, U_x)^4, (H_x, G'_x)^4, (H'_x, G_x)^4$. These are the fourteen special covariants of this system (Gordan, *Math. Ann.* II. 275). To this list are to be added the five forms belonging to each quartic separately, viz. U_x, H_x, G_x, I, J , and V_x, H'_x, G'_x, I', J' . Hence there are in all twenty-eight forms made up as follows:—eight invariants, eight quadric, seven quartic, and five sextic covariants.

The Table which follows gives the number of forms of the combined systems from I., I. to IV., IV. :—

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
I.	3	5	13	20
II.		6	15	18
III.			26	61
IV.				28

NOTE C.

THE QUINTIC AND ITS CONCOMITANTS.

GORDAN fixes the number of independent concomitants as twenty-three, which may be derived as follows :—the first fourteen, viz. four invariants, four linear covariants, three quadratic covariants, and three cubic covariants come from the covariants I_x of the second degree and J_x of the third degree considered as a distinct combined system in the manner of Art. 191. One reduction, however, in the number there obtained (viz. fifteen, the number of irreducible forms of the combined system) occurs in this case, for the resultant of I_x and J_x , or $R(I_x J_x)$, is the same as the discriminant of J_x , or $\Delta(J_x)$, both leading to the same invariant of the twelfth order. In addition to the fourteen thus obtained, the remaining nine concomitants are defined as follows, K_x being used to denote the Hessian of J_x :—

Quartic Covariants : $I_D(H_x) \equiv Q_x, J(I_x, Q_x)$;

Quintic Covariants : $U_x, J(U_x, I_x), J(U_x, K_x)$;

Sextic Covariants : $H_x, J(I_x, H_x)$;

Septimic Covariant : $J(H_x, J_x)$;

Nonic Covariant : JU_x, H_x .

The foregoing results are collected in the following Table, where p signifies the degree in the variables, ϖ the order in the coefficients of the quintic, and N the number of concomitants of each degree:—

p	ϖ				N
0	4	8	12	18	4
1	5	7	11	13	4
2	2	6	8		3
3	3	5	9		3
4	4	6			2
5	1	3	7		3
6	2	7			2
7	5				1
9	3				1

Adopting the definitions of the invariants given by Clebsch and Gordan, and implied in the following equation (see Art. 190), the connexion between the four invariants of the quintic is established as follows by Gordan:—

$$-J^2(I_x, K_x) = I_4 K_x^2 - 2I_8 I_x K_x + I_{12} I_x^2;$$

also $\frac{1}{3}I_D(J_x) = L_x \equiv L_0 x + L_1 y.$

Now, substituting L_1 and $-L_0$ for x and y in I_x, K_x , and in $J(I_x, K_x)$

we find $-I_{18}^2 = F(I_4, I_8, I_{12}),$

since $R(I_x, L_x) = 12I_{12} - 16I_4 I_8,$

$$R(K_x, L_x) = I_8^2 - I_4 I_{12}.$$

Thus I_{18} is defined, and its square expressed in terms of the other invariants which are not skew.

NOTE D.

THE SEXTIC AND ITS CONCOMITANTS.

THE first sixteen of the twenty-six forms of the sextic come from I_x and L_x treated as a combined system (Art. 217). In this way we obtain all the invariants, quadratic covariants, and quartic covariants. There are in general eighteen forms in the combination of a quartic and quadratic; but, in this special case, owing to the nature of the coefficients, the invariant D_1 , which is an invariant I_8 of the sextic, is expressible in terms of the invariants I_2, I_4, I_6 , in the form $I_8 = pI_4^2 + qI_2I_6$: also the covariant sextic of I_x is reducible to those which occur in the enumeration which follows. It should be noticed that all these forms are even in the variables, $n\omega - 2\kappa$ being even for the sextic.

The following is a complete enumeration of the covariants:—

Quadrics: $L_x = I_D(U), \quad M_x = I_D(I_x), \quad N_x = M_D(I_x),$

$J(L_x, M_x), \quad J(L_x, N_x), \quad J(M_x, N_x).$

Quartics: $I_x, H(I_x), J(I_x, L_x), J(I_x, M_x), J(I_x, N_x).$

Sextics: $U, J_x, J(U, L_x), J(U, M_x), J(J_x, L_x).$

Octavics: $H_x, J(U, I_x), J(H_x, L_x).$

Decimic: $J(I_x, H_x).$

Duodecimic: $G_x.$

These results are collected in the following Table, in which p is the degree of the concomitant, ω the order in the coefficients, and N the number of each kind:—

p	ω						N
0	2	4	6	10	15		5
2	3	5	7	8	10	12	6
4	2	4	5	7	9		5
6	1	3	4	6	6		5
8	2	3	5				3
10	4						1
12	3						1

The skew invariant R_{123} (Art. 217) of the combined system I_x and I_y , being the skew invariant I_{15} of the sextic, its square can similarly be expressed in terms of the invariants of an even degree of the sextic.

It will be noticed that there are two covariants of the sixth degree in the variables, and of the sixth order in the coefficients; this is the first instance in which there are two irreducible seminvariants of the same order and weight in the binary system.

It may be observed that if the ternary forms of any three of the quadratic covariants be taken as lines of reference, the sextic will be represented by a cubic and conic combined, such that every coefficient in the equation of either curve is an invariant of the sextic.

NOTE E.

IN illustration of the principles of Art. 208, and in order to account for invariants which being linearly independent are not algebraically so, we add here some examples taken from various parts of this volume.

(1). In the case of two cubics (Art. 192), we have nine equations to eliminate $\lambda, \mu, \lambda', \mu'$: hence five invariants, which form a list algebraically complete, since the combinants P and Q of Art. 192 can, when squared, be expressed in terms of the five which are of an even weight (cf. Ex. 29, p. 207). It is seen therefore that, although there are seven linearly independent invariants, only five are algebraically independent.

(2). In the case of the quintic (see Note C) there are seven equations to eliminate $\lambda, \mu, \lambda', \mu'$, giving three algebraically independent invariants. Of the four linearly independent invariants one is, when squared, expressible in terms of the others, for

$$I_{15}^2 = F(I_4, I_8, I_{12}).$$

(3). In the case of the sextic there are eight equations to eliminate $\lambda, \mu, \lambda', \mu'$, giving four invariants algebraically independent. The sextic has, however, five linearly independent invariants, these being connected by a relation of the form

$$I_{15}^2 = F(I_2, I_4, I_6, I_{10}),$$

where I_{15} is the skew invariant of the combined system of the quadratic I_x and the quartic L_x (Note D), whose square has been expressed in terms of the other invariants of an even weight (Art. 217).

It is instructive to consider the absolute invariants of a binary quantic from a geometrical point of view. If the n roots be

$$\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \rho_1, \rho_2, \dots \rho_{n-3},$$

there are $n - 3$ independent anharmonic ratios which may be represented as follows:—

$$(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \rho_1), (\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \rho_2), \dots (\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \rho_{n-3}).$$

All the anharmonic ratios can be rationally expressed in terms of these, and, since they are unaltered by any linear transformation (Art. 38, Vol. I.), they are $n - 3$ independent, irrational, absolute invariants. These results must, moreover, be implied by the $n + 1$ equations connecting the old and new coefficients $a_0, a_1, \dots a_n$ and $A_0, A_1, \dots A_n$, since they embrace all the general consequences of every linear transformation of the quantic, however expressed.

The following refers to Art. 216:—

DETERMINATION OF THE UNIQUE TERNARY FORM.

The ternary form U , of degree m , which corresponds to the binary form of degree $2m$, may be conveniently expressed as follows. Taking $u = (a_1x_1 + a_2x_2)^{2m}$ as the binary form, we have

$$u = (a_1^2x_1^2 + 2a_1a_2x_1x_2 + a_2^2x_2^2)^m,$$

whence

$$U = (a_1^2x + a_1a_2y + a_2^2z)^m, \quad \text{where} \quad \Pi(U) = 0,$$

which is the required ternary form when it is expanded, and the coefficients of the binary form substituted therein.

The converse problem—namely, to reduce the general ternary form to the particular form such that $\Pi(U) = 0$ —admits of the following simple solution:—

Let U be written with trinomial coefficients complete in form; for the variables x, y, z substitute $x_0^2, 2x_0y_0, y_0^2$, respectively, and arrange the result as a binary form of the $2m^{\text{th}}$ degree; this form will then become $\Sigma(pa_p + qa_q + ra_r + \&c.) x_0^{2m-j} y_0^j$, where $a_p, a_q, a_r, \&c. \&c.$ are the literal coefficients of the ternary form, and $p, q, r, \&c. \&c.$

their numerical multipliers. The reduction of U from having $\frac{m(m+3)}{2} + 1$ coefficients to a form with only $2m + 1$ distinct coefficients will be accomplished by putting $a_p = a_q = a_r$, &c., in such compound terms. When this change is made, it will be found that the differential equation $\frac{d^2 U}{dz dx} - \frac{d^2 U}{dy^2} = 0$ is satisfied identically: also that $p + q + r +$, &c., is the proper binomial multiplier in the binary form. This may be proved as follows:—Making use of Aronhold's notation (Art. 178), we express the ternary form U_m symbolically as $(a_1 x + a_2 y + a_3 z)^m$. Now, operating with $\Pi = \frac{d^2}{dz dx} - \frac{d^2}{dy^2}$, we have

$$\Pi(U_m) = m(m-1)(a_1 a_3 - a_2^2)(a_1 x + a_2 y + a_3 z)^{m-2},$$

every term of which is to vanish.

Hence all the conditions thus obtained may be had by multiplying $a_1 a_3$ and a_2^2 by every product such as $a_1^p a_2^q a_3^r$, where $p + q + r = m - 2$, and equating the results.

For example, when $m = 6$,

$$a_2^6 = a_1 a_2^4 a_3 = a_1^2 a_2^2 a_3^2 = a_1^3 a_3^3,$$

or four coefficients are the same, omitting their numerical multipliers. Now, returning to the binary system of variables, U_m becomes

$$(a_1 x_0^2 + 2a_2 x_0 y_0 + a_3 y_0^2)^m.$$

When this expression is expanded, and all the reductions made which the conditions stated above justify, we shall arrive at a result the same as if we expanded

$$(a_1 x_0^2 + 2\sqrt{a_1 a_3} x_0 y_0 + a_3 y_0^2)^m,$$

or its equivalent

$$(\sqrt{a_1} x_0 + \sqrt{a_3} y_0)^{2m},$$

and then rendered the result rational in a_1, a_2, a_3 by the restoration of a_2 for $\sqrt{a_1 a_3}$.

Thus we see that there are only $2m + 1$ independent coefficients in the ternary form, each coefficient in the binary form being one of the coefficients in the ternary form, its numerical factor being omitted, and the binomial multiplier corresponding to the term supplied instead.

When, for example, $m = 4$, we have the following quartic for U :—

$$\begin{aligned} & a_0x^4 + a_4y^4 + a_8z^4 + 6(a_6y^2z^2 + a_4z^2x^2 + a_2x^2y^2) \\ & + 4(a_1x^3y + a_2x^3z + a_3y^3x + a_5y^3z + a_6z^3x + a_7z^3y) \\ & + 12xyz(a_3x + a_4y + a_5z), \end{aligned}$$

which becomes on transformation

$$(a_3, a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6, a_7, a_8)(x_0, y_0)^8.$$

All the concomitants of this ternary quartic U and the conic $y^2 - 4zx$ combined are also concomitants of the binary octavic.

NOTE F.

PROFESSOR ELLIOTT'S DETERMINATION OF A SOLUTION OF THE DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION $D\Phi = F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$.

IN order to find a special solution of the differential equation

$$D\Phi = F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n),$$

where F is a rational and integral function of the coefficients of order π and weight κ , of the most general type, such that $n\pi - 2\kappa$ is positive, it will be necessary to establish some preliminary theorems.

The following notation is adopted:—

$$D = \sum_1^n r a_{r-1} \frac{d}{da_r}, \quad D_1 = a_n \frac{d}{da_{n-1}} + 2a_{n-1} \frac{d}{da_{n-2}} \dots + na_1 \frac{d}{da_0},$$

$$\Theta_r = DD_1^r - D_1^r D, \quad \nu = n\pi - 2\kappa.$$

I. To prove the theorem $\Theta_1 F = \nu F$,

$$(1) \quad DD_1 - D_1 D = n \sum_0^n a_r \frac{d}{da_r} - 2 \sum_1^n r a_r \frac{d}{da_r},$$

$$\sum_0^n a_r \frac{dF}{da_r} = \pi F. \quad \text{Now, in order to reduce } \sum_1^n r a_r \frac{d}{da_r},$$

since $\lambda^{\kappa} F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = F(a_0, \lambda a_1, \lambda^2 a_2, \dots, \lambda^n a_n),$

differentiating both sides of this equation with respect to λ ; and then putting $\lambda = 1$, we have

$$\kappa F = \sum_1^n r a_r \frac{dF}{da_r};$$

now substituting in (1),

$$(DD_1 - D_1 D) F = (n\varpi - 2\kappa) F, \quad \text{or} \quad \Theta_1 F = \nu F.$$

We proceed to make several deductions from this result which we shall subsequently make use of.

II. To prove the theorem

$$DD_1^r - D_1^r D = r(\nu - r + 1) D_1^{r-1},$$

we have in the first place

$$\begin{aligned} \Theta_2 &= DD_1^2 - D_1^2 D = (DD_1 - D_1 D) D_1 + D_1 (DD_1 - D_1 D) \\ &= (\nu - 2) D_1 + D_1 \nu = 2(\nu - 1) D_1, \end{aligned}$$

observing that the operator D_1 increases κ by 1, and decreases ν by 2, and that D decreases κ by 1, and increases ν by 2.

Again,

$$\begin{aligned} DD_1^3 - D_1^3 D &= \Theta_1 D_1^2 + D_1 \Theta_1 D_1 + D_1^2 \Theta_1 \\ &= (\nu - 4) D_1^2 + D_1 (\nu - 2) D_1 + D_1^2 \nu = 3(\nu - 2) D_1^2; \end{aligned}$$

similarly

$$DD_1^r - D_1^r D = \Theta_1 D_1^{r-1} + D_1 \Theta_1 D_1^{r-2} + D_1^2 \Theta_1 D_1^{r-3} + \dots + D_1^{r-1} \Theta_1.$$

Remembering that $\Theta_1 D_1^p F = (\nu - 2p) D_1^p F$,

and reducing, we have

$$\Theta_r = DD_1^r - D_1^r D = r(\nu - r + 1) D_1^{r-1}.$$

Now, operating with both forms of Θ_r on $D^{r-1} F$, and giving r the values 1, 2, 3, . . . , in succession, we obtain the following series of equations where, for shortness only, we write

$$\Pi = DD_1, \quad \Pi_1 = D_1 D, \quad \Pi_2 = D_1^2 D^2, \quad \dots \quad \Pi_r = D_1^r D^r :—$$

$$\Pi F - \Pi_1 F = \nu F,$$

$$\Pi \Pi_1 F - \Pi_2 F = 2(\nu + 1) \Pi_1 F,$$

$$\Pi \Pi_2 F - \Pi_3 F = 3(\nu + 2) \Pi_2 F,$$

$$\dots \dots \dots = \dots \dots \dots$$

$$\Pi \Pi_{p-1} F - \Pi_p F = p(\nu + p - 1) \Pi_{p-1} F,$$

this series being continued until p has such a value that $\Pi_p F = 0$, which will occur when p exceeds κ , if not previously.

Now, eliminating $\Pi_1 F, \Pi_2 F, \Pi_3 F, \dots$, we obtain the finite result

$$DD_1 \left\{ \frac{1}{1 \cdot \nu} - \frac{D_1 D}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \nu(\nu+1)} + \frac{D_1^2 D^2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \nu(\nu+1)(\nu+2)} - \dots \right\} F = F;$$

that is, we have obtained, as was required, a particular value for Φ which satisfies the equation

$$D\Phi = F(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots a_n),$$

viz.,

$$\Phi_0 = D_1 \left\{ \frac{1}{\nu} - \frac{D_1 D}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \nu(\nu+1)} + \frac{D_1^2 D^2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \nu(n+1)(\nu+2)} - \dots \right\} F.$$

As regards this value of Φ it should be noticed—

1°. That it has a limited number of terms since $D^{\kappa+1}F = 0$,

2°. That none of the coefficients become infinite when ν is positive.

It follows at once that if $\nu > 0$ for $D\Phi$, i. e. if $\nu > -2$ for Φ , the linear functions $L_1, L_2, \dots L_p$ of $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots \lambda_r$, which occur in Art. 165, are linearly independent; for the λ 's may be chosen so as to give them any values whatever. This amounts to Prof. Elliott's proof alluded to in Art. 165, establishing the linear independence of $L_1, L_2, \&c.$

We proceed now, with the same object in view, to exhibit the solution of the following differential equation, which includes the equation of Art. 165, and in which F has the value defined on p. 295:—

$$D\Phi = F \equiv c_1\psi_1 + c_2\psi_2 + \dots + c_p\psi_p.$$

In the first place, when $p = r$, there are no seminvariants of the order ϖ and weight $\kappa + 1$, κ being the weight of F ; but we obtain a solution of the equation $D\Phi = F$, such as has been obtained by the former constructive process, viz. Φ_0 .

Secondly, when r is greater than p , we introduce $\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2, \dots, \Lambda_j$ defined by equations (4), Art. 165, where $r = p + j$.

These equations, along with the equations

$$L_1 = c_1, \quad L_2 = c_2, \quad \dots \quad L_p = c_p,$$

determine $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots \lambda_r$ as linear functions of $c_1, c_2, \dots c_p$, and of $\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2, \Lambda_3, \dots \Lambda_j$, and we have the following value for Φ :—

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{\Delta} \{ c_1\Phi_1 + c_2\Phi_2 + \dots + c_p\Phi_p + \Lambda_1\Sigma_1 + \Lambda_2\Sigma_2 + \dots + \Lambda_j\Sigma_j \},$$

where Δ is the determinant formed from the coefficients of L_1, L_2, \dots, L_p , and the coefficients of $\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2, \dots, \Lambda_j$; $\Phi_1, \Phi_2, \dots, \Phi_p$ being linear functions of $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_r$, and $\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2, \dots, \Sigma_j$ seminvariants, since $D\Sigma_1, D\Sigma_2, \dots, D\Sigma_j$ all vanish.

Now every value of Φ , under the given conditions as to order and weight, satisfying the differential equation $D\Phi = F$, is given by the last formula, which necessarily includes the value of Φ_0 previously determined by Prof. Elliott's independent method; whence it is necessary that Δ shall not vanish, for if it did, the formula would fail to determine Φ_0 in particular, that is, L_1, L_2, \dots, L_p are not linearly connected, since $\Lambda_1, \Lambda_2, \dots, \Lambda_j$ are entirely arbitrary.

NOTE G.

ABELIAN EQUATIONS.*

THE resolution of an equation $f(x) = 0$ of which all the roots are of the form

$$x, \theta(x), \theta^2(x) \dots \theta^{m-1}(x),$$

where $\theta^m(x) = x$, m being a prime number.

First it is plain that if $\theta^\mu(x_1)$ be substituted for x_1 in the series

$$x_1, \theta(x_1), \theta^2(x_1) \dots \theta^{m-1}(x_1),$$

the order of the roots only changes in virtue of the condition $\theta^m(x_1) = x_1$. Now denoting any root whatever of the equation $x^m - 1 = 0$ by α , the expression

$$\Psi(x_1) = \{x_1 + \alpha\theta(x_1) + \alpha^2\theta^2(x_1) \dots + \alpha^{m-1}\theta^{m-1}(x_1)\}^m,$$

where α is considered known, has only a single value, and consequently can be expressed rationally in terms of the coefficients of $f(x)$, $\theta(x)$, and α .

For if we replace x_1 by another root, for example $x_3 = \theta^2(x_1)$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(x_3) &= \{\theta^2(x_1) + \alpha\theta^3(x_1) \dots + \alpha^{m-2}x_1 + \alpha^{m-1}\theta(x_1)\}^m \\ &= \{\alpha^{m-2}(x_1 + \alpha\theta(x_1) \dots + \alpha^{m-1}\theta^{m-1}(x_1))\}^m \end{aligned}$$

* See Ex. 20, page 205.

whence we see that

$$\Psi(x_1) = \Psi(x_2) \dots = \Psi(x_m),$$

and consequently

$$\Psi(x_1) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_1^m \Psi(x_r).$$

We can therefore calculate Ψ as a symmetric function. It moreover contains a , and consequently has a distinct value for each value of a .

If then we denote by U_r the value of Ψ corresponding to the value a_r of a , we can derive m equations of the form

$$x + a_r \theta(x) + a_r^2 \theta^2(x) + \dots + a_r^{m-1} \theta^{m-1}(x) = \sqrt[m]{U_r},$$

giving r the values $(0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1)$.

The value corresponding to $a_r = 1$ is known, for it is

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \dots x_m = -A,$$

A being the coefficient of x^{m-1} in $f(x)$.

Also if we add both sides of these m equations, observing $\Sigma a^p = 0$, $p \not\equiv m$, we find that

$$mx_1 = -A + \sqrt[m]{U_1} + \sqrt[m]{U_2} + \dots + \sqrt[m]{U_{m-1}}.$$

Again, if we multiply each of the equations by a_r^{-n} before adding, we find

$$mx_n = m\theta^n(x) = -A + a_1^{-n} \sqrt[m]{U_1} + a_2^{-n} \sqrt[m]{U_2} + \dots + a_{m-1}^{-n} \sqrt[m]{U_{m-1}}.$$

In this expression when we fix the value of any one of the radicals, the others are determined by it rationally, as we proceed to prove by connecting $\sqrt[m]{U_1}$ and $\sqrt[m]{U_p}$. Putting a^r for a_r , a being a primitive root of unity, we have

$$\sqrt[m]{U_1} = x + a\theta(x) + a^2\theta^2(x) + \dots + a^{m-1}\theta^{m-1}(x),$$

$$\sqrt[m]{U_p} = x + a^p\theta(x) + a^{2p}\theta^2(x) + \dots + a^{(m-1)p}\theta^{m-1}(x),$$

and if we change in these equations x into $\theta^n(x)$,

$$\sqrt[m]{U_1} \text{ becomes } a^{m-n} \sqrt[m]{U_1}.$$

$$\sqrt[m]{U_p} \text{ becomes } a^{(m-n)p} \sqrt[m]{U_p},$$

whence

$$\phi(x) \equiv \frac{\sqrt[m]{\overline{U}_p}}{(\sqrt[m]{\overline{U}_1})^p}$$

is unaltered by any interchange of the roots, and can therefore be calculated as a symmetric function, viz.:—

$$m\phi(x) = \{\phi(x_1) + \phi(x_2) + \phi(x_3) + \dots + \phi(x_m)\};$$

hence all the radicals $\sqrt[m]{\overline{U}_2}, \sqrt[m]{\overline{U}_3} \dots$, &c., can be expressed rationally in terms of $\sqrt[m]{\overline{U}_1}$ and known quantities; the above formula for x_1 has therefore exactly m values, and the equation $f(x) = 0$ is always solvable by radicals.

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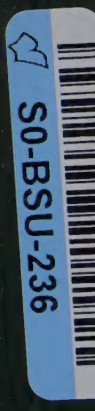
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